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TEACHER PERSONNEL

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WASHINGTON, D. C.



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CHAPTER I

Teacher Supply and Demand

DURING THE YEARS 1934, 1935, and 1936, fifty-five reports were published which seem worthy of noting in this review. Three of these reports were phases of the National Survey of the Education of Teachers, covering supply and demand relationships in the elementary and secondary public schools. These studies pictured the teacher placement success of several hundred institutions in all parts of the country. Among the other studies were two regional and eight statewide investigations of supply and demand, including the training and experience of teachers. Individual college placement officers contributed thirteen publications. Other reports dealt with demand in physical education; with demand for teachers of handicapped children; with a follow-up of recent graduates of the University of Michigan who were trained to teach; with reviews of previous investigations; with analyses of the influence of tenure on supply and demand; with general discussion of the problem; and with suggestions for improving the situation.

Status of Teacher Supply

In the last issue of the *Review of Educational Research* on "Teacher Personnel" (17) covering the years 1931, 1932, and 1933, a serious oversupply of teachers was reported which was at its worst late in 1932 or early in 1933. The reports of placement offices (3, 26, 35, 40, 47) show that the picture for 1934 was perhaps one-third better than in 1933. The upward trend in employment continued through 1935 and 1936, with a shortage of teachers beginning to appear in 1936 in several states in elementary education, music, commercial subjects, home economics, industrial arts, fine arts, and physical education. Substantial oversupply still existed in English, history, and in some of the foreign languages. In California there was a great oversupply of those trained in school administration (1). Umstattd (53) received information from 260 collegiate institutions showing that 65 percent of the graduates of the year 1934-35 were placed as compared with 56 percent for the previous year. Tendencies of schoolboards to employ poorly-trained teachers in preference to qualified people were noted both in Tennessee (43) and in Kentucky (33).

Moritz (40) stated that more than two-fifths of all public school teachers and superintendents in Nebraska received increases in salaries for the year 1934-35 and that many teaching positions, especially in home economics, industrial arts, music, and commercial art, which had been eliminated in 1933, were restored in 1934.

Devricks (13) found an increased percent of recent graduates taking advanced courses in institutions of higher learning and entering occupations

other than teaching. For the country at large, Carney (9) showed that a large percent of teachers trained for urban positions was being employed in rural schools. In Missouri there seemed to be an oversupply of high-school teachers and some shortage on the elementary level (18). Wallin (56) emphasized the need for more properly qualified teachers for handicapped children.

Reasons for the improvement of opportunities in teaching include less staff reduction, restoration of previously eliminated subjects, more frequent resignations—the women to marry, and members of both sexes to enter other occupations more remunerative than teaching; relatively low salaries in teaching compared with those in other occupations; and better employment opportunities in other occupations, including governmental service (16).

Wightman (57) noted the possibilities of increased opportunities for teachers in such areas as adult education, vocational rehabilitation, visiting teachers, psychological work, nursery schools, and kindergartens. He believed that such an expanded program may demand twice as many teachers as we have at the present time. Frasier (23) and Townsend (50) pointed out these same possibilities. Pitkin (44) expected the fields of adult and radio education to make 150,000 teaching positions by 1940.

Factors in Supply and Demand

Evenden (21) made a presentation and analysis of fifteen factors influencing teacher supply and of fifteen factors influencing teacher demand in the National Survey of the Education of Teachers. He showed the influence of teacher mobility on supply-demand relationships. An interesting sixteen-item formula for estimating demand was set up.

Betts (7) showed that in states having a permanent tenure law the number of teachers leaving their positions to marry was only half the number leaving for this reason in non-tenure states. Elliott (19) reported a decrease in permanent withdrawals from teaching from 12 percent in 1925-26 to 9 percent in 1930-31. The growth of parochial schools was given as one reason for the oversupply of teachers in Boston (8). Frazier (25) showed that the regular school population will probably continue to decrease for several years. The generally increased teaching load reduced the demand for teachers during the depression (11).

Remedies

The suggestions by Evenden (21) for solving the teacher supply-demand problem included: an inventory of the professional equipment of teachers, the development of a program of teacher education, the estimation and control of the demand, and estimation and control of the supply.

The Southern Association Committee (48) found that in states covered by that body there was not sufficient information available for estimating the demand, and little was being done toward controlling the supply. It was recommended that the Association's resources be used in stimulating provisions for securing the necessary data through the various state depart-

ments of education and for bringing about cooperative action toward a satisfactory solution of the problem. Elliott (19) proposed coordination of teacher-training institutions with each other, and with state departments of education. Townsend (50) suggested nationwide cooperation in bringing the supply and demand together. In his estimation, it is necessary to predict future needs as well as future supply, to lengthen the period of training, to discontinue permanent certification, and to study thoroughly educational trends in order to anticipate new areas of demand. Several authors recommend careful selection of students and limited enrolment (5, 19, 49). Parsons (43) would raise certification standards in Tennessee. The recommendation that the state assume an increasing responsibility for the certification and selection of teachers was made by Elliff (18).

Elliott (19) presented nine recommendations for improving conditions in the teaching profession. These are: (a) creation of a state educational planning board; (b) functional organization of the state board of education; (c) continuous survey of personnel needs; (d) certification limited to state board of education; (e) contraction of teacher production during depression periods; (f) study of institutional competition and duplication; (g) testing of those planning to enter the profession; (h) raising of certification standards; and (i) adoption of the county sociological unit plan.

Hart (30) recommended what he called the "sabbatical stagger plan." This plan involves the grant of a year's, or a half year's leave of absence with half-pay to teachers who have been in service to the state for a period of six years or more. To take the place of teachers who have been granted such leaves, substitutes would be employed at salaries equal to but not exceeding one-half of the salaries of teachers on leave. The substitutes would be selected from the army of unemployed teachers.

A. F. Myers (41) stated that not more than 10 percent of the states have departments of education adequately staffed to carry out plans for controlling teacher supply. He would have quotas assigned to institutions. He pointed out that vested interests in teacher training must be faced in any program of supply and demand. Frasier (23) emphasized the need for limiting the number of pupils taught by one teacher in the elementary grades to twenty-five.

CHAPTER II

The Measurement and Prediction of Teaching Ability

DURING THE LAST THREE DECADES nearly 500 studies have been made in an attempt to secure a more adequate knowledge of the factors that condition success in teaching. While the problem is still largely unsolved, much has been learned during this period about both teachers and teaching. It has been ascertained, for example, that certain factors such as age, experience, salary, and skill in handwriting are not related to teaching success. It has been shown that the success of the teacher, as determined by supervision in the field, cannot be ascertained by photographs, letters of recommendation, or a personal interview. Furthermore, numerous investigations bear out the conclusion that scholarship and intelligence are moderately related to success in teaching, but are inadequate as measures to be used for predicting teaching success. While measures of personality traits and success in practice teaching frequently have shown a high relationship with the success of the teacher in the field, the results have been far from consistent.

Improved experimental technics in the later studies, involving the use of more refined statistical methods and more objective and reliable measuring instruments, have in general resulted in reducing the observed relationships. The high coefficients of correlation reported in the earlier studies frequently were spurious, owing to the halo or spread of estimate resulting from the subjective character of the measuring procedures employed. A selected list of studies of the measurement of teaching ability has been summarized in the *National Survey of the Education of Teachers* (60) and in the *Review of Educational Research* (65).

Technical Problems

The criterion of teaching success—The basic and most difficult aspect of the problem of prediction is the development of a satisfactory criterion, or measure. A criterion of teaching success must be valid and reliable and based upon the fundamental objectives of education. The subjective character of the criteria that have been used in many of the studies precludes the possibility of securing a high reliability. According to Corey (66) the criterion of teaching constitutes "the most stubborn difficulty which presents itself to those studying the nature of teaching success."

The criterion of teaching success most frequently employed has been concerned with teacher traits and skills rather than with the results or outcomes of instruction. Usually, a general estimate of teaching success in practice teaching or success on the job as determined by a supervisory officer, has been employed. The use of subjective rating scales has not improved the situation. More recent studies have used more objective rating scales with some success. Barr and others (59) used a criterion

consisting of an objective measure of pupil achievement. These studies have rather consistently reported low or zero coefficients of correlation with teacher traits or supervisory estimates of teaching success. The curriculum validity of the criterion test has, however, been open to some question.

Corey (66) reports an intensive study at Lincoln, Nebraska, of what constitutes teaching success in history and mathematics.

Indexes of teaching success—During the last decade a number of investigators have attempted to improve upon the earlier studies by using measuring instruments that were more objective and more reliable. Some of the rating scales translated traits into trait actions, and skills into specific procedures. For an objective measure of the teacher's professional knowledge, tests of professional information were used, and to obtain a measure of general ability, intelligence tests were given. The intelligence tests appear to have little or no predictive value, whereas tests of professional information in some instances have yielded zero-order coefficients of validity of .50 or higher.

Numerous investigators have sought the opinions of high-school and college students about the traits of the teachers they liked best and those they liked least. These studies are in substantial agreement in reporting that the students liked those teachers best that could teach effectively and that were kind, sympathetic, understanding, and fair. Boardman (62) found a high relationship between these teacher traits and teaching success.

Supervisors, in listing the teacher reasons for pupil failure, have rather consistently listed failure in discipline, lack of knowledge of subjectmatter, and personality traits among the most important reasons. When supervisors rated the teachers on these same traits, however, and correlated the ratings with independent measures of the teacher's success, little relationship was found.

Contributions to the study of the measurement of teaching success have also been made by contrasting the traits of good and poor teachers, studying the causes of teacher failure, and seeking the opinions of pupils.

Technics of measurement—The most common technic employed in studying this problem has been to compute zero-order coefficients of correlations between rating scores or test scores, and criterion scores. Boardman (62) and other earlier workers (65, 83) have used partial correlations, multiple correlations, and the regression equation. Partial correlations seem not to have made a significant contribution. Multiple correlations show an increase in predictive value when a number of factors are combined. The use of the regression equation by a few investigators has indicated the futility of accurate prediction with our present measures, except for the purpose of placing teachers in one of three or four merit groups.

Current Investigations

Personality traits and teaching success—Simon (82) listed the reasons given by superintendents for the dismissal of nearly 2,000 teachers and

found that weakness in discipline and deficiency in personality traits were the most frequently mentioned causes. Hatcher (73) used a subjective rating scale of ten personality traits and secured coefficients of correlation ranging from .35 to .77 between the trait ratings and practice teaching grades. Laycock (77) found no significant relationship between practice teaching grades and scores on an objective test of personality. A similar study by Maple (78) showed no relationship.

Herda (74) found no significant differences in the efficiency of men and women teachers as judged by the achievement of the pupils in state board examinations. He also found that pupils in rating these teachers in fifteen traits indicated no significant differences in their preferences for men or women teachers.

Pupil ratings and teaching success—Bowman (63) secured pupil ratings and supervisory ratings of the same practice teachers and found little or no agreement between them. Remmers (79) found that a composite of the ratings of 25 high-school pupils yielded a reliability coefficient of .90. In a study conducted by Hart (72) nearly 4,000 high-school students were asked to list the traits present in the teachers they liked best. The characteristics with the highest frequency of mention were instructional ability, good naturedness, friendliness, interest in pupils, ability to make work interesting, good disciplinarian, impartiality, lack of crossness or sarcasm.

In a study conducted by Engelhart and Tucker (69), a group of expert judges prepared a list of more than 50 traits which they considered were related to good teaching. More than 200 high-school students rated their teachers using this list. Tetrachoric coefficients of correlation were computed. The 10 traits showing the highest relationship to teaching success were good judgment, clear in explanation, respecting opinions of others, sincerity, impartiality, firmness, appreciation, interest in pupils, broad-mindedness, and knowledge of subject.

Supervisory estimates and grades—Three methods of measurement—general estimate, the score-card, and pupil attention—were compared by Shannon (81). The highest agreement was found between general estimate and the score-card method. The coefficient of reliability for the ratings of teaching success given by supervisors in a state department of education was studied by Hardesty (71). The reliability as determined by rerating 127 teachers was .51. These success ratings correlated with success in practice teaching to the extent of .07. The relationship between scholarship and teaching success was .15. Butler (64) computed the relationship between grades in method courses and grades in practice teaching, and found coefficients of correlation of .23 and .44. Forty-five percent of the grades in methods and in practice teaching were the same, and 45 percent of the remaining grades deviated one division.

Objective tests and pupil achievement—Davis (68) found no relationship between the amount of specialized training possessed by a teacher

and the success of his students in state high-school examinations. He found that experienced teachers were more successful than beginning teachers. No significant relationship was found by Coxe and Cornell (67) between an entrance examination consisting of a battery of seven objective tests and later success in the field. An objective examination was constructed by Betts (61) that discriminated between novice and superior teachers. The relationship between the scores of fifty-four elementary teachers on this test and on objective measure of pupil achievement was .41.

Lancelot (76) conducted a study on the college level to determine differences in the instructional efficiency of instructors in the same department. These differences were determined by: (a) considering the quality of work done by a given instructor's students in all later courses of the prescribed sequence; and (b) the persistence of students in continuing on to the end of the sequence. The technic employed yielded differences that were statistically significant. Seyfert and Tyndal (80), using an objective achievement test in science, found significant differences between the achievement of pupils for a good teacher and a poor teacher when the changes produced were evaluated in terms of units of mental age.

Studies of Prediction

In the second report on his five-year study, Kriner (75) presented correlations of various traits with teaching success. He found a correlation of .60 with first-semester grades in college, one of .58 with the dean's prophecy, .61 with college science courses, .57 with high-school Latin, and .47 with professional courses.

Hatcher (73) concluded that practice teaching is more closely related to personality qualities than to scholarship, though her study was based on only 20 cases. She reported the following correlations: sincerity, .78; enthusiasm, .63; reserve, .60.

Ganders (70) and Troyer (84) pointed out that reading ability as indicated in certain reading tests is significant in later success.

Study of the problem of prediction is at present greatly handicapped by lack of an adequate measure of teaching success, as previously mentioned. In a certain sense, all studies of the measurement of teaching are foundational contributions to the study of prediction.

Further studies of appraisal and prediction are referred to in Chapter V, under the topic, "Appraisal of Candidates."

Summary

The current investigations have in general made but slight contribution to the study of the measurement of teaching success, and have not suggested new technics for the study of the problem. Increasing evidence seems to indicate the futility of studying isolated teacher traits. Pupils, however, persist in their statements that they like those teachers best that have such traits as friendliness, sympathy, fairness, and understanding. The pupils have identified certain traits and attitudes that create wholesome teacher-

pupil relationship. The multiple factor analysis technic may discover the unitary personal traits that are basic in developing such relationship.

The fundamental importance of teacher-pupil relationship is self-evident, because it is essential to the promotion of optimum conditions for learning. Certain attitudes, traits, and procedures are undoubtedly necessary to establish teacher behavior patterns that contribute to wholesome relationships in the classroom. A study of the integration of the teacher's attitudes, traits, and practices necessary to create and maintain such an environment is a challenging problem that may throw considerable light on the problem of measuring teaching success.

CHAPTER III

Recruitment for Teacher Training

Need for Selection

THE NEED for more careful study of the teacher recruitment problem has been somewhat forcibly called to the attention of administrators of teacher-training institutions in recent reports by Learned (107) and Yeager (128). Both of these investigators presented data showing that students choosing teaching as a profession usually rank below the average for students choosing other professions. These investigators and others, including Campbell (91), Ludeman (108), Oppenheimer (112), and Wood (127), indicated the need for greater care in recruiting the best high-school pupils for teaching.

Reports from institutions that have utilized rigid selection technics show an improvement in the quality of students. At the University of Buffalo, Hertzberg (104) reported very definite improvement in the caliber of the candidates. Ganders (101) made a similar report indicating the success of the plan used at Syracuse University; and in New York State, according to Cooper's study (92), pre-training selection is also showing hopeful results.

A study of the reports for the period 1934-36 indicated a rather definite trend toward more rigid requirements for entrance into teacher-training institutions. There were also definite indications that many institutions have adopted policies of elimination during the training period, and in some cases have extended the training period, with an additional year of study or internship. The most significant study in this field is the one made under the auspices of the Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching, and reported by Learned (107). The five-year study of Kriner (105) is being watched with considerable interest; his second report appeared in January, 1935.

Plans for Selection

Significant among plans now proposed or in use are those of New York State and Michigan, both statewide plans for selective admission, and the one in Providence, Rhode Island, which is receiving national attention. On July 29, 1935, the New York State Board of Regents adopted the following requirements for teacher-training institutions, reported by Cooper (92):

1. Merit and fitness of applicant based on (a) moral character, (b) physical fitness, (c) quality and use of voice and correct use and command of language, (d) general intelligence, culture, and scholarship, (e) personal and social attributes, (f) technical skill in special subjects for those entering specialized departments, and (g) interest and enthusiasm for teaching.

2. Kinds of examinations and interviews. The qualities listed under (1) may be determined by any or all of the following: written examinations, formal interviews,

practical tests of technical ability, physical examinations by physicians, speech examinations, informal interviews, and correspondence.

3. Scope of examinations shall be determined by committee on selective admission, subject to approval of Commissioner of Education in advance of the examination itself.

4. Eligibility for admission to examination open to high-school senior or graduate who has completed requirements for state high-school diploma or approved equivalent preparation with scholarship satisfactory to Commissioner of Education, at least sixteen years of age at time of entrance, a citizen of the United States, and who intends to teach in the state of New York not less than two years after completion of professional curriculum.

For the state of Michigan, Schorling (118) advocated the use of available objective scales to screen out the obviously incompetent candidates. The plan as suggested is for the state board of education to create a scale of 900 points, 100 to be assigned to each of the following items:

1. Comprehensive test in major subject
2. Comprehensive test in minor subject
3. Acquaintance with the significant pedagogical principles and concepts
4. Scholastic aptitude
5. A basic test in English
6. Undergraduate record in complete four-year college course
7. The mark in directed teaching
8. Comprehensive test of general culture
9. Graphic rating technic of teaching personality.

By a common sense usage of such a scale, Schorling believed the poorest material could be immediately eliminated, and from a study of its results the procedures could be validated.

The Providence plan is based on a total of 1,000 points of which 500 are derived from tests in culture, scholarship, and professional training; 200 are determined from an evaluation of training and experience; and 300 represent group ratings in teaching personality (127).

Recommendations for Pre-Training and In-Training Teacher Selection

1. Need exists for a better quality of candidates to be educated for the profession of teaching (85, 101).

2. There is general acceptance of the principle and importance of pre-training selection of teachers (87).

3. There is need for more courage in selective admission and progressive elimination in teacher-training institutions (113).

4. The evidence warrants the conclusion that teacher-educating institutions can secure a better quality of personnel if and when they set out intelligently to do so (85).

5. The first step in upgrading the student personnel of teacher-educating institutions is the development of a clearer realization on the part of these institutions that their primary obligation is to society rather than to the individual (85, 101).

6. No single factor offers a sufficiently broad basis for the intelligent selection of candidates for teacher-educating institutions; accordingly a program of selective admission must include several factors (85).

7. The selection of candidates for the profession should be based on a cumulative record system covering the whole previous school life of the candidates (85, 114, 117).

8. At the beginning of the period of professional specialization in any institution for the education of teachers, whether at the beginning of the senior college, at the end of the junior year, or on admission to graduate school, requirements should be set up that will eliminate all candidates who have not shown in their previous educational record definite scholastic interests and aptitudes, the possession of effective habits of study, satisfactory personality traits, adequate physical vitality, satisfactory emotional control, a social attitude, freedom from all serious physical and speech defects, and possession of strong professional interests (85).

9. Teaching must be made more attractive as a profession (85).

Establishing Quotas

Writers on the subject of allotting quotas for teacher training were not in agreement as to the merits of this method of restricting, and thus selecting, teaching candidates. Two investigators, Hagie (102) and Martin (109), favored this plan, whereas Donovan and Jones (96) and Frasier (98) were strongly opposed to it. Frasier claimed that our society is not sufficiently static to justify the procedure: "Furthermore we need to be much wiser than we are now before we can select intelligently for a quota. A common standard of selection that is used takes students from the upper 25 percent according to academic marks. I think this is bad. It excludes from teaching a large, competent, socially-minded group that probably would make better teachers than the academic-minded upper 25 percent. No quotas for me. We need many more teachers and I am much in favor of the middle 50 percent as compared with either extreme."

Internships

The idea of teaching internships seems to be gaining headway. Brownell (90), Martin (109), and Woellner (126) in particular, stressed the desirability of a year of internship for testing the teaching aptitude of candidates for teaching. "After graduation," according to Martin, "the state board should grant them an opportunity to serve as 'novice' teachers for one year, granting teachers' certificates to only those whose year of 'novice' service proves successful."

Comprehensive Knowledge of Candidates

Barr and Douglas (87), Phelps and Schlagle (114), Learned (107), and Sangren (117) were generally agreed that no single measure was adequate to determine a person's qualifications. According to Sangren, "selection must be based on a fair and just determination of the probable fitness of individuals for teaching—not on the basis of any single measuring instrument, but upon the combined evidence secured from a series of facts accumulated over a period of years." Selection should also be continuous throughout the college training period (96, 109, 117, 127).

More than previously, culture, character, personality, and breadth of knowledge are being stressed as important in teaching success (101, 113, 114).

Cooperation from High Schools

A common recommendation is to urge closer cooperation between the secondary schools and the teacher-training institutions in the selection of candidates of promise for the teaching profession. Superintendents and principals who are wide awake will realize that in the end they are insuring that they themselves will have better teachers in their systems if only outstanding students are sent to specialize in teacher preparation. On this point, Yeager (128) said: "It is recommended that machinery be set up to guide a larger proportion of the promising youth of the high schools into the teaching profession."

Morgan (110) presented a list of questions for high-school pupils to ask themselves in studying teaching as a profession. As for example, "Have I the needed qualities for teaching?" In considering the qualities demanded of prospective teachers, Ludeman (108) collected a list of academic and personal qualities desired of high-school graduates which in the judgment of heads of departments of education, teaching candidates should possess. The first ten items in each list are as follows:

Academic Qualities Desired:

1. Good command of English
2. Broad scholarship
3. Good study habits
4. Mastery of elementary fields
5. Strong in social studies
6. Reading ability
7. Mental alertness
8. Ability to organize materials
9. Information in science
10. Ability to work independently.

Personal Qualities Desired:

1. Christian character
2. General intelligence
3. Industry
4. Ability to cooperate
5. Health
6. Personal appearance
7. Initiative
8. Honesty
9. Pleasing personality
10. Enthusiasm.

A movement which should prove significant in teacher recruitment is the organization of high-school and college "future teachers" clubs (100). A leader in the movement is the Laramie, Wyoming, High School. Its purpose is the development and recognition of traits of service, scholarship, sociability, character, and leadership in pupils who plan to be teachers. Another pioneer in the "future teacher" movement is the Walterboro High School, Walterboro, South Carolina. The aims of this organization are the following:

1. To help pupils who expect to become teachers to choose the high-school subjects that will best further their career
2. To survey the curriculum of the colleges to find the one best suited to train them for their profession
3. To survey the field of teaching to guide pupils in specializing
4. To study some of the common problems of the schoolroom in order that these pupils may become familiar with classroom management and instruction
5. To read stories of successful teachers
6. To act as a student reserve for substitute teaching when called on.

In Atlanta, Georgia, the William A. Bass Junior High School has had a Student-Teacher Club since 1931, whose primary purpose has been to train special students to do substitute teaching. Each year a booklet on teaching is prepared by the club. Since 1934 the Department of Public Instruction of South Dakota has sponsored an all-day Future Teachers Conference with the hope of giving new and prospective teachers a larger idea of their professional relations in the state.

Both Cowley (94) and Bennett (88) recommended a system of recruiting college students through the medium of some central agency which will insure cooperation instead of the cut-throat tactics of competition which often prevail at present.

Technical Developments

Although the problems of prediction and measurement were presented in the preceding chapter, it seems appropriate here to call attention to certain studies which have dealt with analysis and measurement incidental to the problem of selection.

Yeager (128), in studying high-school seniors interested in teaching, presented three measurement scales. One is a numerical scale for evaluating extracurriculum offices. The other two are scales for measuring attitude toward teachers and teaching, and a general questionnaire. Troyer (122) worked out a technic of scoring significant items on the application blank for admission to Ohio State University. These scores correlated .49 with the first quarter point-hour ratio.

Barr and Torgerson (106) established that the most valid rating scales are (a) the Michigan Teacher Rating Scale, (b) the Almy-Sorenson Teacher Rating Scale, (c) the Pennsylvania Teacher Rating Score Card, and (d) the Torgerson Teacher Rating Scale. Similarly, the most valid measures of qualities commonly associated with teaching efficiency are (a) the Thurstone Psychological Examination, (b) the Knight Teaching Aptitude Test, and (c) the Torgerson Test of Professional Information.

Phillips (115), in making his analysis of prospective and active teachers, also made an interesting and valuable analysis of various teacher measurement tests and technics. His comparative study of teachers is interesting and his data seem to indicate a general superiority of the prospective teachers. A somewhat similar study has been made by Betts (106) in his N. S. Trait Measurement. (N. refers to novice teachers and S. to superior teachers.)

Summary

1. In selecting teachers, the traits or qualities most frequently considered are: scholarship; teaching aptitude; academic intelligence; social intelligence; skill in expression; health and physical fitness; freedom from physical defects, such as un-sightly deformities, vision, hearing, and marked over- and under-weight; character;

personal fitness; personality; social attitudes; emotional stability; freedom from neurotic tendencies (87).

2. Measuring instruments most frequently employed are: high-school and college marks; psychological tests, aptitude tests, and achievement tests; letters of recommendation by high-school officials and others; rating scales; questionnaires; personal interviews; and health, physical and medical examinations (87).

3. For the most part the programs are based upon opinions rather than scientific investigation (87).

4. The general characteristics essential to good teaching are not revealed by single measurements. It takes a careful study of many tests and much action to determine the presence or absence of these characteristics (105).

5. Teacher-training institutions may at present expect to receive as candidates for admission individuals who are not particularly outstanding as high-school seniors (128).

6. Barriers to admission change the attitude toward education courses and elevate the status of the professional school on the campus. The success that has attended the efforts to select for admission to professional education at Syracuse and a number of other institutions, should lead to a more general adoption of the principle (101).

7. Low correlations may be due to the fact that the entrance tests and the quality of school work do not measure those qualities which make for teaching success, or they may indicate that the criteria of teaching success are inadequate (95).

8. Low coefficients of correlation in studies of the measurement of teaching ability are due in part to errors of measurement; in part to the range of talent; and in part to the minuteness of the contribution made by the different aspects of teaching measured when compared with the whole of teaching ability (86).

CHAPTER IV

The Preparation of Teachers

BUTSCH (153) PRESENTED a review of teacher preparation for the preceding three-year period, 1931 to 1933, inclusive. He reviewed 78 studies which were concerned with amount of teacher education received, sources of this training, professional courses taken, preparation required for certification and appointment, courses actually taken, and considerations of adequacy of preparation.

The present review covers more than 200 investigations selected from twice as many published articles. Most of the eliminated studies were discussions or interpretations which did not include factual data. The retained studies either definitely included factual data or were based on those published elsewhere. Because of the extensiveness of the literature, the findings have been summarized systematically.

Report of the National Survey

The three-year period covered by the present review is notable because of the publication of the reports of the National Survey of the Education of Teachers under the auspices of the United States Office of Education and under the immediate direction of E. S. Evenden and staff. The six comprehensive volumes resulting from the survey include findings on almost every phase of teacher preparation. In order that outstanding findings shall not be obscured, some of the most important chapters have been included as separate entries in the bibliography of this chapter. References to the National Survey are itemized under the following numbers in the bibliography: 140, 156, 159, 185, 186, 187, 194, 195, 196, 199, 200, 227, 268, 270, 273, 274, 275, 276, 278, 279, 280, 285, 297, 298, 299, 300, 301, 302, 303, 304, 305.

Classification of Studies

Of the two hundred studies here reviewed, more than fifty referred to *general curriculum or course considerations*, as follows: general studies (240, 269); professional education (154, 183, 186, 188, 263, 284, 295, 305, 316); amount of preparation (129, 163, 184, 187, 311); trends (170, 172, 267, 312); practices and policies (170, 270, 299); revisions of curriculums (132, 139, 147, 216); specialization (167, 280, 296, 303); education courses including educational psychology, statistics, and measurement (152, 166, 212, 243, 249, 251, 260, 265, 268, 329, 332, 333, 344); elections and prescriptions (273, 300); general education (188, 304);

curriculum patterns (274, 298); innovations (278); background (275); coordination (236); proposals (277); and representative courses (297).

Nearly fifty more investigations referred to *education or training for specific fields or levels*: subjectmatter in general (131, 175, 218, 305, 309); college teachers (266, 286, 290, 322); secondary school (158, 206, 264); science (145, 192, 205, 223, 337); library (189, 241, 244); foreign languages (221, 222, 283); industrial arts (242, 247); mathematics (190, 225, 259, 293); English (177, 210, 229, 239, 252); business (181, 193); music (138, 338); rural (137, 159, 171); physical education (176, 191, 272); junior high (168); vocational agriculture (130); elementary teachers (133, 220); secondary-school principals (151); nursery schools (246); junior college (178); training for needs (155); sequence and integration (157); art (237); and auditorium (248).

Four studies referred to *general preparation* (153, 261, 292, 301); six were *bibliography lists*, some of them annotated (198, 208, 209, 307, 315, 324); thirteen referred to *personnel* (135, 185, 202, 203, 258, 279, 282, 286, 302, 315, 318, 322, 335); seven to *guidance and counseling* (150, 257, 317, 319, 337, 342, 343); six to *graduate study* (144, 226, 227, 231, 276, 320); and ten to *traits and qualities of teachers* (140, 182, 214, 217, 234, 245, 250, 289, 313, 345).

Twenty-three reports referred to *student-teaching practices and problems* (161, 164, 165, 169, 173, 194, 195, 197, 201, 215, 224, 228, 253, 288, 291, 306, 308, 310, 314, 321, 323, 328, 341); four to *extracurriculum activities* (146, 200, 254, 294); three to *remedial procedures* (136, 204, 207); three to *personality* (148, 319, 334); five to *beliefs* (231, 285, 286, 287, 336); two to *training institutions* (235, 271); two to *teacher interests* (326, 327); three to *history of teachers colleges* (199, 213, 331); two to *independent study* (134, 330); two to *summer sessions* (196, 233); and two to *comparative education* (132, 232).

Other studies referred to *correlating theory and practice* (141); *raising teacher level* (230); *students' rating of teachers* (142); *administrative rating of student teaching* (143); *methods* (281); *follow-up* (339); *social-economic background* (340); *individual adjustment* (149); *student welfare* (200); *principles* (162); *problems in training* (256); *negro teachers* (156, 160); *directors of training* (255); *length of class period* (262); *cooperative planning* (211); *inbreeding* (179, 180); *long-term planning* (238); and *men versus women teachers* (219).

In a classification of this kind it seems impossible to avoid overlapping. Moreover, much overlapping was found in the separate studies. Throughout the process of the review, preparation of teachers with distinct emphasis upon teacher personnel has been continually kept in mind. Where this involved curriculum practices, they were always subordinated to the kinds and qualities of the teachers turned out.

OUTSTANDING FINDINGS AND CONCLUSIONS

An analysis was attempted of the thousands of findings in the investigations, and a group of outstanding and representative ones were selected to summarize the outcomes and to show trends of interest. A representative sample of each of these findings and interpretations or conclusions was classified under eleven heads as shown in Table 1.

TABLE 1.—OUTSTANDING FINDINGS OF THE INVESTIGATIONS

Topic	Frequency	Rank on frequency
1. Scope of teacher training-----	9	9
2. Practices and policies in preparation-----	111	1
3. Innovations in preparation-----	14	6
4. Extracurriculum activities-----	9	9
5. Graduate work-----	9	9
6. Training school and practice teaching-----	47	4
7. Faculty personnel-----	12	7
8. Summer session work-----	7	11
9. College teachers-----	32	5
10. Guidance and personnel service-----	63	2
11. Specific fields or subjects-----	52	3
Total number-----	347	

Space limitations make it impracticable to list all 347 findings included in the sample, but the following 117 are presented as a representation of them. These are arranged, in general, in the order shown in Table 1, and may be thought of as a rapid review and summation of the types of outcomes of the investigations.

Scope of Teacher Training

1. There are approximately 1,500 institutions of higher education, most of which contribute directly or indirectly to teacher education (301).
2. Liberal arts colleges and universities outnumber teachers colleges more than two to one, and supply about 40 percent of the teachers (271).
3. Teachers colleges have developed tremendously in the last 40 years (331).
4. Percents of 203 universities, colleges, and junior colleges preparing teachers are, respectively, 70, 50, and 13 (270).
5. Forty-six percent of the elementary teachers attain a two-year college training (187).
6. Fifty-eight percent of the senior high-school teachers attain a four-year college training (187).
7. The level of teacher preparation is below that of other professions (187).

Practices and Policies

8. Four-, five-, and seven-year curriculums are more prevalent in universities and colleges than in teachers colleges (270).

9. There is too little evidence of professional integration and sequence in teacher-training curriculums (157).
10. There is little uniformity in introductory courses in education (152).
11. There is insistence on average, not on high, scholarship in teachers colleges (299).
12. Preparation should be based on well-developed standards, criteria, and principles (218).
13. Courses in college mathematics are not much different from those of twenty years ago (225).
14. Students and alumni question the value of many topics in education courses, especially those on the history and philosophy of education (243).
15. There is need for more emphasis upon "what should be" rather than "what is" (269).
16. Certification is the key to better practice (138).
17. Training based upon teachers' activities will provide better professional education (139).
18. Teachers college instructors agree that two-fifths of the subject-matter courses should be professionalized (305).
19. Teachers colleges permit about one-fourth of the curriculum to consist of restrictive electives, and one-third of free electives (300).
20. There is a definite trend toward a broader subjectmatter field conception for teacher preparation (167).
21. There is a trend toward a five-year curriculum for training high-school teachers (167).
22. Opinions on teacher training must be accepted where adequate factual data are lacking (266).
23. Present teacher education does not sufficiently stimulate original thinking, independent productivity, and creativeness (230).
24. There is much recurrent treatment of topics in educational courses (212).
25. Present teaching conditions favor professional courses as separate courses (267).
26. The trend is to lengthen curriculums for elementary teachers (170).
27. Institutions do wrong in advertising to attract students (158).
28. Emphasis at present favors more general rather than more professional education for teachers (188).
29. The blend method of subjectmatter professionalization has many advantages (183).
30. Articulation is needed between institutional levels, subjects and fields, college departments, laboratory and public schools, and between school and life (306).
31. The typical secondary teacher instructs in two of fifteen general secondary-school subjectmatter fields, and not in one of the forty college subject departments in which study majors are usually taken (267).

Innovations

32. A teacher's diary is a valuable plan for effective follow-up advice (339).

33. Experimentation with various phases of professional material is essential (305).

34. Forty-eight percent of 139 teachers colleges provide orientation or survey courses (299).

35. Teachers colleges give little evidence of innovations in the direction of self-planning and synthesis (299).

36. The independent-study plan is shown equal to conventional methods when judged by tested achievement (330).

37. The contract plan has proved effective in Penn State experimentation (281).

38. Honors courses were found in 38 percent of a group of colleges and universities (267).

39. Comprehensive examinations were found in 33 percent of a group of colleges and universities (267).

Extracurriculum

40. Forty-four of 142 members of the American Association of Teachers Colleges offer courses or parts of courses to prepare teachers for supervision of extracurriculum activities (294).

41. There is a demand for teachers trained to supervise extracurriculum activities (146).

42. Prospective teachers need definite training for directing extracurriculum activities (146).

43. Percents of universities, colleges, and junior colleges which provide organized extracurriculum activities are, respectively, 84, 68, 49 (270).

44. Intra-institutional life is gaining in recognized importance (270).

Graduate Work

45. There is a recent trend in teachers colleges toward granting master's degrees (170, 172).

46. Degrees of Ed. D. and Ed. M. are being more and more recognized as special graduate degrees in education and are more widely granted (227).

47. Forty-four percent of 50 universities and 5 percent of 143 colleges which were investigated award the doctor's degree (276).

48. Graduate work for high-school teachers is becoming common (275).

49. "The day of the degree per se accompanied by a feeling of 'arrival' via the doctorate, followed by mental stagnation via tenure, is passing into history" (287).

50. A systematic program of preparation, beginning with the junior year, in one or more broad fields, adequate specific professional preparation, and

professional and graduate work for high-school teachers was recommended (285).

Student Teaching

51. Ninety percent or more of 82 teacher-training institutions in 24 states report observation, participation, actual student teaching, campus elementary schools, and college supervision of student teaching in affiliated schools (129).

52. Fifteen percent of institutions educating teachers require no practice teaching (195).

53. Student teaching, special methods, general method, and educational and general psychology, rank high in alumni opinion (161, 268).

54. Eleven quarter-hours is the average student-teaching requirements before graduation from four-year curriculums in eight investigated institutions (310).

55. There is need for one year of internship before certification (240).

56. Coordinated training centering in group problems and difficulties is valuable (236).

57. The psycho-educational clinic emphasizes study of the individual from the clinic point of view (308).

58. Ninety hours of student teaching is approved by a majority of instructors in training institutions (195).

59. It is practicable and valuable to integrate all courses in education around actual participation and practice teaching (141).

60. Practice teachers greatly prefer free and friendly criticism (314).

Faculty Personnel

61. About two-fifths of the work of prospective teachers in teachers colleges is in the major and minor (303).

62. The number of high-school principals with master's degrees is on the increase (309).

63. Eighteen percent of the reasons assigned for teachers' dismissals are deficiencies in personal traits (313).

64. Education majors in teachers colleges distribute their work over more fields than other majors (300).

65. Prospective teachers in senior classes in Pittsburgh high schools are about average in socio-economic status, intelligence, scholarship, and personality, but they have a more pronouncedly favorable attitude toward teachers and teaching, and participate to greater extent in extracurriculum activities (345).

66. School administrators (sample of about 1,000) prefer teachers who are professionally trained (143).

67. There is evidence of inadequate preparation of high-school teachers for the subjects being taught (218).

Summer Session

68. Of 333 institutions, 172 reported summer training school facilities; 142 reported none; and 19 gave no data (196).

69. Practical summer school activity relating to actual teaching experience is especially valuable in training (233).

70. Summer school training schools are increasing in number (158).

71. There is a trend to organize summer sessions as an integral part of the academic year (196).

72. About one-half of teachers college students utilize the summer session (299).

73. Increasing summer school offerings are the rule in all fields of teaching (196).

College Teachers

74. Of 3,866 faculty members in 28 selected teachers colleges and normal schools, 25.2 percent had doctor's degrees (302).

75. Of 707 instructors in teachers colleges, 58 percent had secondary-school teaching experience (302).

76. About 75 percent of the instructors in teachers colleges had published no periodical articles (302).

77. Prospective college teachers need to study problems of society (154).

78. College teachers need professional training with internship (266).

79. The deanship is now a feature in 85 percent of arts colleges (336).

80. Adequate library facilities received the highest ranking as a suggested means for improving college teachers (287).

81. Preferred effective college teachers have a mastery of their fields (287).

82. College teachers picked as ineffective have personality defects or maladjustments (287).

83. Fifty-eight percent of about 1,000 instructors in colleges and universities investigated held doctor's degrees (279).

84. About two-thirds of approximately 1,000 college and university faculty members investigated had published research in the last five years (279).

85. Directors of training need a broad training in education and in subject fields, and unusual administrative ability (255).

86. College teaching staffs are generally mature (185).

87. Certification for junior college teachers is required in seven states (178).

88. Increasing attention is being given to the education of college teachers (154).

Guidance and Personnel

89. The range, number, and importance of unsolved graduate student problems show the need for the extension of expert personnel service (320).



90. Personnel services, welfare provisions, and extracurriculum activities among college students operate at present in comparative isolation. In seventeen institutions coordination has been attempted by the appointment of a director of personnel, but most colleges rely on part-time deans for personnel work (200).

91. Personnel record forms improve the selection and promotion of college teachers (335).

92. The use of tests in personnel work shows the need for better measures (258).

93. The greatest problems among members of a graduate class in Education were: money, philosophy of life, mental and physical health (326).

94. Educational and vocational guidance are inseparable (327).

95. Certain provisions for personnel service may serve as indexes of the quality of higher educational institutions (203).

96. A great oversupply of undertrained teachers indicates the need for a higher quality of teacher and of training (267).

97. Good judgment stands high as a desirable teacher trait (182).

98. Normal school students in Oregon are on a lower average level socially, academically, and economically, than other college students (340).

99. A group of 61 advisees did no better in college work than a paired group of non-advisees at Minnesota (343).

100. As far as scientific evidence is available, there seems little relationship between scholarship and teaching success (135).

101. Orientation lectures are becoming more common in the first year of college, but vocational guidance is almost neglected (342).

102. The use of pupil achievement as a means of measuring teaching ability must await a clearer agreement as to what sort of achievement is of value to society (140).

103. Master teachers need scholarship, culture, and professional competency (270).

104. The life-career motive in teaching in Europe is valuable for emulation here (232).

105. "... teaching is such a complicated process and involves so many variables that much study and experimentation must be done in the definition of ends and in the selection of means to accomplish those ends, before any very definite recommendations, based upon adequate evidence, can be made concerning the relative merits of any particular pattern for preparing teachers" (140).

Special Fields

106. Teachers often teach in fields for which they are unprepared (131).

107. Rural teachers need training in rural life problems (159).

108. Twenty-nine institutions have been established for negro teachers (160).

109. There is a growing emphasis upon training teacher librarians (189).

110. Business education for teacher training does not keep abreast of business practice (193).

111. Industrial education teachers believe that 75 percent of the curriculum should be prescribed (166).

112. About one-third of all elementary-school teachers are in rural schools (159).

113. Preparation for teaching chemistry is not well professionalized (205).

114. Professional education in art lags, but there are signs of increasing interest and activity (237).

115. Administrative opinion does not favor specific training for junior high-school teachers (168).

116. The committee of the American Chemical Society favors fewer professional requirements for chemistry teachers—not over twelve hours in education courses (284).

117. Women majors in physical education tend to be lower than average in intelligence and scholarship, but are more extrovert and dominating, and show particular interest in sports (176).

Comments, Conclusions, and Implications

Specific findings from some of the most valuable studies listed in the bibliography have not been cited, owing to the exigencies of the method used in citing random results. For example, Brumbaugh (150) reviewed guidance and counseling in higher education; John (226) summarized graduate study in teacher training; Raup (285, 286) investigated the philosophical beliefs of teachers in training institutions; Caliver (156) made an intensive study of negro teachers; Strang (319) gave a unified discussion of studies made in the field of personal development and guidance in college, while Heaton and Koopman (216) have described, probably the boldest attempt, next to New College, to functionalize teacher education. But the samples given indicate the nature of the findings generally derived from the studies made.

Much of the discussion of teacher preparation during the last three years has centered around the findings of the National Survey of the Education of Teachers. It is not often that opportunity is presented for such an inclusive survey. The reader is referred to the final volume by Evenden (186) for a comprehensive overview of the findings. A very notable emphasis was given to the teacher-training problem as a whole. While there is a place for surveying needs of special groups, it must be recognized that these needs should always be conceived and interpreted with reference to their bearings upon education as a whole. Perhaps too often major needs of the whole are lost sight of in overenthusiasm for needs of a small group.

One issue which this review clearly raises is that of the function of education in guiding and directing the development of individuals for a changing social order. Buildings, equipment, teachers, and all other materials or appurtenances of education exist for this purpose. It follows that teachers must be prepared for intelligent, expert guidance of pupils. This implies personal intellectual, cultural, and moral qualities of a high order. Teacher-training institutions are concerned, then, primarily with developing intelligent, scholarly, cultured, well-balanced, and ethically-minded individuals equipped for a specialized vocation. All resources of these institutions should be directed toward the fulfilment of this purpose.

Needed research—There is need of more experimentation for evaluation of innovations and established practices. Status quo, curriculum-pattern analysis, and the like are beginning to add little to the orientation of him who reads the literature. They tend to be repetitive in many of their findings. There should be more curriculum building based upon actual studies of student needs, social needs, and higher levels of desired outcomes with more carefully planned experimentation for more valid and reliable evaluation.

CHAPTER V

Teacher Selection and Placement

Responsibility for Selection and Appointment

SINCE 1914, according to Reller (377), the trend has been toward greater participation by the superintendent and less participation by the board in the selection and appointment of teachers; but the trend was checked by the depression. Deffenbaugh and Zeigel (357) found superintendents having the major role in selecting and nominating secondary-school teachers. Edmonson (359) outlined procedures by which the board and superintendent may cooperate to best advantage. Bawden (352), and Maxwell and Kilzer (368) stressed the importance of the board using the expert leadership of the superintendent in this important function.

A Louisiana court (350) upheld a board in refusing to reemploy teachers who had not voted for a tax measure, on the grounds that a board has the right not to reemploy and that its reason for failure to reemploy is not subject to judicial inquiry.

Technics of Selection

Bondurant (353) and Wood (385) found need for greater use of personnel records in teacher selection. The latter cautioned against too general acceptance of findings which have shown prospective teachers to be less able than those preparing for other professions because some outstanding institutions had not been included in the studies.

Barbour (351) diagnosed teacher placement activities and recommended greater stress upon educational guidance of prospective teachers. Allen (346) reported successful results from a personality clinic which gave preplacement interviews, and from a teacher-training program which gave apprentice teaching under conditions favorable to placement. Patty (375) recommended a nationwide publicity program to convince the public of the importance of well-prepared physical education teachers.

The group application plan, in which one well-qualified candidate is assigned a region to canvass for vacancies instead of permitting promiscuous applications, was developed during several years of experimentation by Allen (346).

Walker (383) found the percent of registrants with graduate degrees to be increasing, and described technics which had been developed over a period of ten years for placing graduate students.

Anderson (347) summarized standardized practice in institutional teacher placement, stressing cumulative records, the training of candidates in the details of applying and interviewing, relationships between admission officers and placement officers, cooperation within the institution, the elimination of high pressure salesmanship, and the standardization of forms for information collected by all institutions. He cautioned against too

great standardization and recommended flexibility to fit institutional differences.

The results of several years of research and discussion of numerous technics and principles of teacher placement appeared in a book, *Institutional Teacher Placement*, prepared under the sponsorship of the National Institutional Teacher Placement Association (381).

Appraisal of Candidates

Phillips (376) considered neurotic stability in addition to traits previously studied in attempts to discover the essentials for teaching success.

He showed that teachers who rated above average in neurotic stability also rated above average, as a group, on those traits which he found to be correlated most highly with teaching success. The traits most significantly related to teaching success he found to be intelligence, "teaching prognosis" scores, leadership (a composite), scholarship marks, socio-economic status, and dominance.

Odenweller (374), in another thorough research of the relation of traits to effectiveness in teaching, included a total of twenty-six traits, five of which were of personality or "a power or an ability to influence other persons" as rated by different groups including principals and supervisors, three colleagues, student-teaching supervisors, college faculty, and combined ratings of faculty and student-teaching supervisors. The five personality ratings were among the eight highest traits when correlated with effectiveness. The highest correlation coefficient was $+0.825$, between personality as judged by principals and supervisors and effectiveness in teaching. College marks ranked fourth. High-school marks bore the same relationship as height did. Weight was found to be as significant as intelligence.

Bossing (354) reported coefficients of correlation of $+0.82$, $+0.76$, and $+0.75$ for college scholarship, professional courses, and practice teaching, respectively, with teaching ability. He presented a summary of all previous studies in the field and related the problem to the work of the director of teacher placement.

Townsend (379) found that intellectual superiority gave a ten to six advantage over the less able. Maurer (367) ranked the five most important traits as poise, professional urge, cooperation, initiative, and enthusiasm. Davis (356) organized the desirable traits under the physical, moral, and social. His survey of defects as revealed by high-school pupils showed inability to discipline, lack of adaptability, and the use of college methods of teaching to be leading causes of failure. Livingood (365) obtained from 1,029 high-school seniors the traits most liked and the traits least liked in teachers.

Goetch (363) found critic teachers less liberal than superintendents in rating teachers. The critic teachers were inclined to rate prospective secondary-school teachers higher than the pre-secondary-school student

teachers. De Long (358) reported a plan to place selection on the merit basis by including ratings upon eight different factors, one of which was the score upon a prognosis test of teaching ability.

Recommendations

Morrisett (371), in the most thorough study of letters of recommendation to date, set forth in his conclusions the functions of recommendations, basic information desired, information actually contained, differences between letters of successful and unsuccessful candidates, desired sources of the letters, bases of value in letters, contents of printed reference forms, discrimination shown in marking such forms, criticisms by employers of letters of recommendation, and ethical principles involved in the preparation and use of letters of recommendation. Miller (370) cautioned against "damning with high praise" in testimonial letters. Gaylord (362) stressed the need for more individualized treatment and less standardization in letters of recommendation.

Legal Aspects

Anderson (348) summarized court actions pertaining to certification, appointment, and the teacher's contract for 1934, 1935, and 1936. The cases clarify the law of the states involved with respect to authority to appoint and dismiss, termination of contract, and the teacher's rights when unlawfully dismissed.

Ethics

The need for protecting the schools against nepotism and other questionable practices was shown by Seay (373), who found that more than one-third of the relatively small group of teachers studied had procured their positions by having relatives in the school system or by bargaining. The educational planning commission of one state (369) derived a set of principles to guide boards in their attempt to avoid such practices.

Follow-up

Gammage and Riemer (361) set forth principles of follow-up which included a definite two-year program of contacts between institution and school official and between institution and the beginning teacher. Chevreux (355) recommended follow-up as a state function.

Institutional Teacher Placement

Frazier (360) found a lack of coordination in the services of placement bureaus. Hooker (364) suggested that some plan be worked out for coordination of bureaus within each state. That such a plan is in operation

is evident from several studies and reports. Umstattd (381) found representatives in thirty-nine states willing to assist in organizing state groups. In twenty-six states, informal groups of placement officials later reported to him such activities as researches to aid in placement problems, formulations of codes of ethics, committee meetings with superintendents, publication of articles in state journals, and cooperative publicity of their institutional placement service (382). Successful cooperation has been reported among the twenty college and university bureaus in the Illinois Institutional Teacher Placement Association (349, 384). Thomas (378) found twelve state groups actively engaged in such activities in 1936.

McAfee (366) recommended placement by state education associations after he had found few state departments with successful placement offices. Umstattd (380) found that the eleven state department bureaus placed 1,600 candidates in 1931, and that the six bureaus operated by state education associations placed 1,309 candidates the same year, one association bureau (California) reporting 938 placements. Findings from college bureaus indicated that they had placed approximately 40,000 candidates that year.

Moser (372) obtained reports from the managers of state education association bureaus and from school administrators and found their services limited though important to a relatively small clientele.

The researches and interpretative work of the National Institutional Teacher Placement Association gives promise of greater economy and efficiency in teacher placement practices throughout the nation (381).

CHAPTER VI

Local Residents and Married Women as Teachers

THE LOCAL-RESIDENT and married-woman-teacher problems were previously reviewed by Cooke and Enlow (388). In these fields thirty-five reports for the years 1934, 1935, and 1936 seem worthy of reviewing. An analysis of these reports reveals a dearth of actual research and quantitative data. Emphasis seems to have been placed upon philosophical and theoretical considerations.

Significant Statements and Opinions Regarding Local Teachers

Two significant statements regarding the policy of employing home-talent teachers should be mentioned. The Committee on Teacher Personnel of the Michigan Educational Planning Commission (392) has formulated a sixteen-point set of standards for the selection of teachers. The fifth standard is as follows: "The board will not permit discrimination in favor of a local candidate but will select the best candidate regardless of residence." Holmes (394), in discussing applicants from the local teacher-training institution, asserted, "Those who are genuinely concerned to have good schools will insist that no institution or group of institutions be given an advantage in the competition for posts, that no candidate be debarred whose institutional record meets or exceeds the requirements, no matter where he was prepared, and that the many institutions whose standing may be readily ascertained to be superior and whose graduates are actually available are well represented on the lists."

Butler (386) stated that the power used by hiring authorities should be sacredly exercised. Yet, he believes, in Pennsylvania the educational welfare of boys and girls is too often within the jurisdiction of authorities whose motives submerge unmercifully any consideration of children's rights and prerogatives. The selection of teachers is frequently based upon place of residence, relationship, friendship, economy, pressure, political or religious affiliations, and similar factors which have nothing to do with teaching efficiency. In some communities the home-town candidate is assured of a position even if some regularly employed teacher must be dismissed, and this happens in spite of the fact that the candidate is the pedagogical and academic moron of his college graduating class.

Dalthorp (389) stated that local teachers violate and fail to comply with regulations concerning summer school attendance more often than do non-local teachers: "Local teachers are difficult for the board, disastrous to the community, unsatisfactory for the teacher's welfare, bad for the children, and a nightmare to the superintendent." Deahl (390) pointed out: (a) the best schools require, at least, a statewide area for the selection of school men and women; (b) to have as good schools as the public is paying for, school employees must be selected on merit alone; (c) local

residence in itself provides no evidence of merit; and (d) too many local teachers may limit the community horizon to provincialism.

In interviewing more than 100 persons in every walk of life, Ward (417) found that they are of the following opinion regarding local teachers: "I don't believe that we ought to go outside of our city to find teachers. Our own girls need the jobs." Shouse (410) noted that nearly all teachers are of voting age; that emphasis is being increased upon the employment of local candidates; that local teachers have political knowledge of the community; and that politicians are capitalizing upon this situation for personal gain.

Regulations Concerning Employment of Local Teachers

The schoolboard in Boston introduced a ruling which requires local residence of all applicants for positions. An editorial (413) called attention to the court decisions concerning such matters to the effect that the schools are institutions of the state, and one local school unit has no right to discriminate against other local school units of the state. Dalthorp (389) described a case in which the president of a schoolboard wrote to the superintendent as follows: "We have decided for the next year, at least, to accept local applicants only for vacancies that occur. It will be difficult and embarrassing for you in your public position to make the selections on the new basis so we will relieve you from that part of your work." In this instance the superintendent intended to recommend candidates whom he regarded better qualified than the local candidates.

Reding (406) reported from the data obtained through the Tennessee Educational Commission that of the 77 county school systems studied in Tennessee 4 have rulings that only local candidates may be employed, 40 give preference to local candidates in actual practice, and 33 state that no preference is given to local residents. Of the 55 cities studied, 2 have rulings permitting the employment of local candidates only; in 23 cities local teachers are preferred; and in 30 no preference is given to local residents. Of the 132 school units studied, local candidates are employed in 4.6 percent of the units; in 47.7 percent, local teachers are preferred; and in the remaining 47.7 percent of the units no preference is given to local candidates.

Influence of Local Residence in Employing Teachers

Lastinger (397), in a study of three counties in Florida, found that: (a) 28 percent of all applicants reside in the county in which they are employed, 45 percent reside outside of the county but within the state, and 27 percent are non-residents of the state; (b) no non-residents of the state are employed to fill vacancies; (c) 88 percent of all the teachers employed reside within the particular county wherein the vacancies occurred; (d) 12 percent of all teachers employed reside outside of the county in which they are employed but within the state. The city of Boston employs 5,400

teachers. Of this number, only 1,616 do not live in Boston. Thus it seems from these data that the place of residence is a strong factor in determining the selection of teachers (413).

Qualifications of Local and Non-Resident Teachers

Reynolds (409) reported on 138 teachers in 13 counties in Virginia as follows: (a) superintendents and principals tend to rate non-resident teachers higher than they do local teachers; (b) the non-resident teachers rank higher than local teachers on the basis of grade of certificate held, years of college training, and years of experience; (c) the non-resident teachers receive on the average higher salaries than the local teachers; (d) there is no significant difference between the two groups with respect to professional and civic interests and activities; and (e) more non-resident teachers than home-talent teachers are engaged in extra-curriculum activities.

Local Teachers and Nepotism

The data of Seay's study (404) showed that slightly more than one-third of the teachers responding stated that they secured their positions by bargaining or that they have relatives who are officially connected with the school system. The practice of buying positions is more serious in the mountain areas of Kentucky than it is in other parts of the state, and it is more common among the teachers who have the least training. Generally, bargaining involves close kin. The practice is definitely related to local residence as evidenced by the following figures. At the time of this study there were 9,300 teachers employed in Kentucky who had one-half year of college training or less, while there were 3,600 *unemployed* teachers in the state who had met the standard of two or more years of college training.

Arguments Concerning Married Women Teachers

Snedden (412) stated that few married women can combine rearing of children and a profession successfully; that the greatest danger in the employment of married women is the encouragement of race suicide by their inability to take time for child-bearing. In another article Snedden (411) stated that married women who are preoccupied with household and child care generally render inferior service to that of unmarried women teachers. He believes that when the government seeks to make jobs for the unemployed, public school services of married women teachers deprive men and unmarried women of incomes that they need more than do married women. In regard to salaries, Snedden says that married women tend to underbid other candidates; hence they are a chronic source of cheap labor. He is convinced, however, that fixed salary schedules in most cities prevent any serious danger of married women teachers underbidding the unmarried women (412).

Most of the writers on the subject favored the employment of married women teachers. Married women usually make more efficient teachers than do their unmarried colleagues (405). LaVance (398) said that dozens of outstanding educators were asked whether or not married women teachers should be employed, and nine out of ten answered, "Regardless of whether the teacher is married or single, if she is qualified and gets her job done, employ her." Thorpe (415) believed that married women should be urged to continue in service and that provisions should be made for securing competent married women for teachers in order to bring experience and stability to the schoolroom. Peters (405) concluded that, "A blanket rule which arbitrarily eliminates individuals as a class levies a high tariff on training and talent. . . ." Duane (391) contended that motherhood makes the teacher more understanding of the pupils and problems of the parents. An editorial writer (402) stated that there are reasons for believing that the married woman is particularly fitted to teach senior girls and care for little children. He also observed that marriage usually aids women in becoming better teachers, enriching and broadening their viewpoints on life, and giving them more understanding and appreciation of children, particularly if they are mothers.

It was the opinion of Johnson (395) that the practice of divorcing married women from their positions in the public schools is an unsound economic policy and that it penalizes the school teacher who aspires to make teaching a profession, because it forces her to be a spinster or to give up her position. A correspondent to an English paper (401) stated that it is incorrect to place the arguments against employing married women teachers on a social and economic basis. He believes that the proper principle upon which to decide the question is the ability of the teacher to render the service desired; that schools exist to train children and not to furnish employment to the needy. Peters (405) found no evidence to justify a policy of discrimination against married women as a class. Higley (393) asserted that the wholesale discharge of women in industry, business, and the professions has not alleviated the sufferings resulting from the depression. Ward (417), as a result of an interview with over 100 persons in every walk of life, found the following opinion to prevail: "I don't believe married women should be hired if they have husbands to support them. The single girls need the jobs."

The National Union of Women Teachers, held at Weymouth, England, passed the following resolution: "It is the right of every woman to engage in paid employment should she so desire. We call strongly upon the government, municipal authorities, and private employers to abolish all regulations which debar a woman from employment solely on account of marriage" (400). A London editor (399) stated that women, mothers included, should be able to judge how they can best serve the community. Another writer (407) stated that the efficiency of the service should be the primary consideration in the retention of married women.

Married Women Teachers versus Single Women Teachers

Peters' research (405) showed that data on teacher load indicate that married women teachers evidence no tendency to avoid full participation in the school program; that 10 percent fewer married women teachers seem to resent the amount of out-of-school time which teaching exacts than is true of the single group; that married women teachers exceed the single women teachers by 27 percent in participation in civic organizations. LaVance (398) believed that the minds of married women teachers are no more occupied with household duties than are the minds of unmarried teachers with "gadding about." An editorial writer (402) feels that, "Married women teachers will not lightly disregard either the call of the home or the interests of the school."

Waits (416) found that the mean percent of gain by classes taught by married women is 19.09 with a standard deviation of 7.5, as compared with a mean of 18.52 and a standard deviation of 7.3 for classes taught by single women. Peters' investigation (405) showed that the average ratings by principals and supervisors tend to be higher for married women than for single women teachers, but the difference is too small to be significant. He reported that, "The measured achievement (in point scores) of pupils taught by married women teachers exceeded the measured achievement of pupils taught by single teachers by $.86 \pm .29$. The measured mental growth of the pupils taught by the married women teachers exceeded the measured mental growth of the pupils taught by the single teachers by $.60 \pm .23$." In each case the difference in favor of married women teachers approaches statistical reliability. On the other hand, elaborate surveys to determine relative efficiency of married and unmarried women teachers proved nothing conclusively (418).

The Courts and the Married Woman Teacher

Keesecker (396) said, "In regard to marriage as an additional cause for dismissal it has been held that rules adopted by a board of education cannot control the provision of the statute and are immaterial in determining the statutory rights of the teacher." The Supreme Court of West Virginia held that the marriage of a female teacher is not of itself ground for revocation or abrogation by the schoolboard of its contract with the teacher. An Oregon court held that "the mere fact of marriage is not alone sufficient to warrant the discharge of a teacher" and that a "mandamus is available as a remedy." A Minnesota court held that the following board rule is valid: "Female teachers that are single when hired and married thereafter, their contract shall be in force only at the discretion of the board of education."

Peters (405) gave a number of generalizations in regard to the contractual status of married women teachers. He said, "In the absence of limitations by statute law, a school board can, in employing teachers,

determine its own policies on marital status of women." If, however, the statute specifies causes for which a teacher may be dismissed, a board rule setting up marriage of a woman teacher as an additional cause for dismissal is not valid. Permanent tenure by statutory enactment protects women teachers against schoolboard rules providing for termination of services on account of marriage. "In the absence of a statutory provision to the contrary, a by-law, reservation in the contract, or board rule to dismiss a woman teacher on account of marriage may be legally enforced." The misrepresentation of marital status because of a rule against employing married women teachers, in order to enjoy the benefits of employment, constitutes fraud, and a contract obtained in this manner is void.

Chambers (387) found that judicial opinion regarding the married woman teacher is divided and cited cases for Massachusetts and Indiana wherein the decisions are not in agreement.

Current Trends

Lastinger (397) reported that 38 percent of the positions given to women are filled by married women; that 20 percent of the men and women given positions have dependents. Peters (405) stated that during the past decade the trend in sentiment has been against the employment of married women teachers. Between 1928 and 1931 the number of cities employing married women teachers on the same basis that single women teachers are employed was reduced by approximately 17 percent, and the number of cities permitting women to teach after marriage was reduced by approximately 12 percent. Policies unfavorable to the employment of married women teachers were found more frequently in the smaller cities. A survey in 1932 of 1,500 American city schools showed that 63 percent of the cities require women to resign upon marriage, and the remaining 37 percent, in which teachers are not immediately dismissed, do not usually engage them for the following year (418). In London the County Council agreed to employ married women teachers (414). The Irish Free State (408) has a rule that women teachers who are appointed for the first time after October 1, 1934, shall upon marriage cease to be eligible for recognition in any capacity other than as a substitute, and then only for a period not exceeding six months. Felice Cohn, Nevada's only woman lawyer, commented as follows: "An appalling number of women teachers come to Nevada for 'convenient' divorces. . . ." (414). In New Zealand (403) a recent statute stated that boards of education are given the right to dismiss all married women teachers on three months' notice. Upon being dismissed the teacher may appeal her case to the Teachers' Court of Appeals, which court will take into consideration the financial condition of the teacher and grant her appeal if circumstances indicate that the dismissal would constitute a cause of undue hardship.

CHAPTER VII

In-Service Training of Teachers

Why In-Service Training of Teachers?

THE THIRTEENTH YEARBOOK of the Department of Superintendence on *Social Change and Education* (425) mentioned social change and a too brief pre-service education as reasons for in-service training of teachers. Wightman (434) gave cooperation between teacher, employer, and training school in progressive reconstruction as the purpose of the training school follow-up programs. Edmonson (420) proposed a critical appraisal of the significant findings of educational research, and their application, as suitable curriculum material for teachers and administrators in service. The National Society of College Teachers of Education (426) designated needs for in-service programs to serve three groups of teachers: (a) those whose professional preparation is below the present accepted standard and who wish to "upgrade" themselves; (b) those who wish to prepare for another type of position; and (c) those who, even though their preparation meets present standards, wish to increase their knowledge or skill in some phase of their work or to add to their general outlook and cultural background. Kyte (423) suggested the growth of the teacher as the general objective, but explained that (a) certification requirements, (b) single salary schedules, (c) increased competition due to numbers available, (d) increased opportunities for advanced training, and (e) development of follow-up services have aided the increase in university and college provision for in-service training. Adequate rewards for teachers and increased college budgets were suggested to provide further training.

Studies of certification requirements (431, 432) showed that 39.2 percent of all types and 54.6 percent of the life or permanent certificates require in-service education. Recommendations for longer probationary periods and additional professional training resulted from these findings.

In his treatise on the legal status of all phases of in-service training, Witherington (435) showed that some laws required in-service training while others aimed to facilitate this education.

Types of In-Service Training

The Thirteenth Yearbook of the Department of Superintendence (425) recommended (a) extension, summer school and correspondence courses; (b) local programs of curriculum revision; (c) cooperative experimentation and research; (d) directed reading; (e) demonstration teaching; (f) professional lectures; (g) teachers meetings; and (h) apprenticeship teaching for beginners, to lead teachers to plan and carry out an adequate educational and social program for the children. Witherington (435)

analyzed these general headings into more specific types for his study of the legal status of all in-service training. He treated supervision¹ and the accompanying teacher rating as another important feature of in-service training, and leaves of absence as among the less frequent provisions. The National Survey of the Education of Teachers (421) gave a detailed list of agencies and means with evaluations of both.

Hadsall (422) specified (a) publications, (b) extramural classes, (c) correspondence courses, (d) clubs, (e) personal visitations, (f) teachers institute service, (g) visual aids, and (h) radio programs as the agencies offered by publicly supported institutions as aids to elementary science or nature study in public schools.

Demonstration—Shannon (430) reported the different forms of demonstration teaching. He explained how each is to be conducted for maximum teacher improvement. A lengthy list of selected references accompanied this article.

Kansas City Teachers College (419) carried out a Saturday in-service program for the city's teachers. The demonstration school was in regular session on Saturday rather than Monday to provide the regular school situation. The University of Florida (424) used this plan and provided special bulletins of suggestions for observers. These bulletins prepared for directed observation followed by general and special conferences. These programs have been well received and attended.

The Milwaukee schools provided for their own demonstrations (428). Emphasis was placed upon the application of the psychology of learning and relation of theory to practice. Teachers profited by taking part in both demonstration and observation, the former accredited as the better of the two for in-service training. An increasing attendance and the demand for more demonstrations were offered as evidence of teachers' reactions to this plan.

Provisions for college courses—Northwestern University (433) offered extension classes in varied professional courses for the teachers of Chicago. Both curriculum and extracurriculum phases were stressed.

In order to make their services available to a maximum number, the University of Michigan (420) established ten centers for a field course for administration and supervision. Four units are offered: (a) The Improvement of Reading, (b) The Diagnosis of Behavior Problems, (c) Technic of Instruction for Slow Normal Pupils, and (d) Appraisal and Redirection of Extracurriculum Activities. The course provided two hours of graduate credit.

The normal school of Castine, Maine (429), described its provisions for exchange of advanced students for teachers in service needing further

¹The Yearbook (425) planned "Supervision" as a topic by itself. This is also true in the *Review of Educational Research* where "Supervision" appeared as one of the main titles for review, in June 1936. Only special types of supervision, such as the demonstration and local programs of study, are reviewed here.

training. The teacher received his salary and paid the exchange student-teacher's living expenses. The student rather than the teacher paid all regular school fees, including room and board. The supervised student-teacher's work was satisfactory. A concentrated program of instruction was provided for the teachers during their six weeks at Castine. The plan was recommended to an estimated radius of one hundred miles from the conducting institution. Both teachers and student teachers obtained the desired training. The cost per individual concerned was \$3.88.

Follow-up work—The State Normal School of Paterson, New Jersey (434), described six years of experience with follow-up courses as a part of the teacher-training program. The objections—displacement of local authority, spying, and sunshine dispensing to promote placement—were found to be misconceptions overshadowed by emphasis upon both preventive and corrective measures by the field workers.

Local programs of study—Camden, New Jersey (424), programmed a five-year plan of study. Definite themes of problems were adopted for each year. These major themes were outlined to provide a united attack upon the problem of personality development. The National Survey (421) recommended this program because it offered the opportunity to make use of and unify all agencies for in-service training.

General Summaries and Conclusions

The National Survey (421) reported administrators' and teachers' judgments of in-service agencies. Ratings of specific methods and means under each type of in-service training were then provided. The survey committee summarized their own studies and those of an exhaustive bibliography which extended to March 1, 1932. Emphasis was placed upon consideration of the consumer, needed study of types and uses, and programs to bring unified effort of all agencies.

Witherington (435) decided that the in-service problem should be limited by more selective procedures on the part of the state departments and training schools. Two studies asked that in-service training be placed on a par with pre-service training (421, 435).

CHAPTER VIII

Size of Class and Teaching Load

ACCORDING TO THE STUDIES made and reported during the last three years, the major problems connected with teaching load and class size are still unsolved. Many articles have been written giving arguments for and against the present load of teachers and the present size of classes. A few studies have been made which throw some light on the problems; other studies have reported conditions as they exist.

Babour (436) summed up the situation very well when he said:

Most of the articles on class size, which did not report experiments, fall into the classification of essays expressing thoughts and opinions of the authors. The essays ranged from attempts to prove that in the secondary schools larger classes are preferable because they offer a better socializing, democratic situation, to impassioned pleas for smaller classes where character development is possible.

The arguments against large classes may be summarized under three headings: (1) The most important outcomes of teaching, such as character development, appreciations, and attitudes are not measurable and can't be acquired by pupils in large classes, as well as in small classes. (2) Large classes would impair the quality of teaching. Every child is different and needs individual help. (3) Large classes are false economy.

Size of Class

The most comprehensive survey of the actual class size in public schools was made by the Educational Research Service of the National Education Association (463, 464). This survey reported the conditions in 61 cities with a population of more than 100,000; 139 cities with a population between 30,000 and 100,000; and 82 cities with a population under 30,000. The findings of the survey, which were published in 1936, are given in Table 2. This table shows the conditions in the nation in the school year 1935-36 and in 1930-31. The survey revealed the fact that a policy of maintaining the same size of class for elementary schools was found in 80 percent of the schools reporting. The same policy does not hold for the other divisions of the schools.

Two facts stand out. First, in all three groups of cities, the median size of class in the kindergarten and the elementary grades was smaller (or the same size) in 1935-36 than it was five years earlier, while the median size of class in atypical classes and in junior and senior high schools was larger in 1935-36. Second, in the senior high schools, the median size of class in the various subjectmatter departments, without exception, was larger in 1935-36 than in 1930-31.

For the city of New York, Campbell (443) reported in December 1935 that classes were organized on a basis of 38.5 pupils per teacher in the elementary schools, 36 pupils per teacher in the junior high schools, and 31.5 pupils per teacher in the senior high schools. He reported further that actually in the elementary schools, the load was 37.3 pupils per teacher.

TABLE 2.—MEDIAN SIZE OF CLASS IN CITY SCHOOL SYSTEMS
1930-31 AND 1935-36 (463, 464)

Description	Cities over 100,000		Cities 30,000 to 100,000		Cities under 30,000	
	1930-31	1935-36	1930-31	1935-36	1930-31	1935-36
Type of class:						
Atypical	17	19	15	17	--	17
Kindergarten	35	31	34	30	30	28
Elementary grades	37	36	34	34	33	32
Junior high schools	32	35	29	32	30	32
Senior high schools	28	31	27	29	26	28
Senior high-school classes in:						
Fine arts	21	26	19	22	15	17
Household arts	21	26	20	23	16	21
Manual training	22	25	20	23	19	20
Foreign languages	25	27	24	26	22	24
Music	27	35	27	31	25	27
Science	28	31	27	29	25	27
Mathematics	29	31	27	29	27	27
English	30	32	28	30	28	30
Commercial studies	30	32	28	31	27	28
Social studies	31	33	29	31	30	31
Physical education	41	48	42	43	35	40

This load is heavier than it was in 1932 when the pupil-teacher ratio was 36.8. The distribution of size of class in New York is typical of that found in other cities. Two hundred and seventy-five classes had fewer than 25 pupils; 1,174 had between 25 and 29 pupils; 4,017 had between 30 and 34 pupils; 5,224 had between 35 and 39 pupils; 4,764 had between 40 and 44 pupils; 1,967 had between 45 and 49 pupils; and 57 had between 50 and 54 pupils.

Class size in Europe—According to a report given in *School and Society* (468), the average size of classes in the entire country has gone up at least 10 pupils and is now about the same as in England, Italy, and France.

From the literature available, it appears that class size is as acute in European countries as it is in the United States. Of the 151,951 classes in England and Wales, 6,184 or 4.1 percent are classes of more than 50, according to a report published by the British government (459) in March 1934. This number was less than the number of large classes reported in 1933 when there were 8,296 classes or 5.5 percent over 50. In London, 83.5 percent of the classes have between 50 and 30 pupils. However, the classes in the secondary schools average about 30.

Proposals for Reducing Class Size

A number of suggestions have been made by European writers to take care of the heavy teaching load. One author suggests that some classes should be rather large and certain parts of some subjects should be handled in groups even larger than the present large classes. Others suggest that

England should have a scheduled program to reduce the class size from 50 to 25. One group of children would go to school three mornings and two afternoons a week, while another group would go two mornings and three afternoons a week. The rest of the day would be spent either at home with more homework or on the playground under supervised direction where large groups could be handled. It was suggested further that it may be necessary to build large sheds for the pupils to play under during wet days. Other writers suggest that seniors in school be used to coach the younger pupils.

These suggestions for teaching large classes are not so different from some offered in the United States. Nearly every study made in the field of class size offered or implied ways to teach the large class effectively.

Gray (455) made several suggestions. Among these are: (a) using printed materials, i. e., published books and workbooks and locally constructed materials either printed or mimeographed; (b) using pupil aids; (c) having the stronger pupils help the weaker pupils; (d) providing for self-initiated activities; (e) using student officers; (f) making use of group method of recitation; and (g) initiating projects.

According to Wiggins (475), the problem is not confined to methods of teaching or to large schools. He suggested that small high schools can adjust their schedules to assist in aiding the teacher in handling larger classes. He gave examples of how these changes may be brought about.

Time Spent in Teaching

Lambert (460) made a study of the teaching load in the Alpine Consolidated District of Utah which employs 123 teachers, of whom 57 are men and 66 are women. He found that the average time spent on teaching was a trifle over nine hours (9.09), divided almost equally between regular and extra class work. The standard deviation was 1.82 hours. The typical man teacher spent 4.8 hours each day in regular classroom instruction—1 hour preparing for the next day's teaching, about 25 minutes supervising extracurriculum activities, and approximately 20 minutes supervising corridors and building—while extra class duties consumed on the average of four and a quarter hours. The load for women teachers was approximately the same as for the men teachers.

The senior high-school teacher in that district taught six classes a day or 30 class periods a week; the junior high-school teacher taught seven classes a day or about 34 periods a week; and the elementary teacher taught a little more than eight classes a day or 42 periods per week. Some elementary teachers taught as many as 55 periods a week.

Bain (438) studied the teacher load in Cleveland's 22 junior high schools and 14 senior high schools. The class period was 45 minutes. He found that actual classroom work took 79.6 percent of the day in the junior high school and 80.3 percent in the senior high school. Homeroom and extracurriculum duties took 8.9 percent in the junior high school and

7 percent in the senior high school. Study hall, corridor, and lunchroom took 7.3 percent in the junior high school and 5.1 percent in the senior high school. All other assignments took 4.2 percent in the junior high school and 6.9 percent in the senior high school. The teacher periods per week were 34.9 in the junior high school and 35 in the senior high school. The pupil periods in classes per week for each teacher were 994.3 in the junior high school and 969.7 in the senior high school.

Dean (448) sent a questionnaire to 500 public school teachers of Newton, Massachusetts, to determine how long they worked daily and what forms of work their daily duties took. He found, first, that the typical teacher's day is approximately 8 hours in length, and, second, that the teachers spend between 43 percent to 58 percent of their daily time in actual teaching. The rest of the time was spent on non-teaching school activities. The non-teaching school activities were divided between work related to teaching and so-called routine work. The percent of time given to work related to teaching was 22.5 in elementary schools, 32.8 in junior high schools, and 38.1 in senior high schools, while the percent of time given to routine work was 19.2 in elementary schools, 17.6 in junior high schools, and 18.2 in senior high schools.

Morecock (462) reported a study of time spent by the faculty of the Rochester Athenaeum and Mechanics Institute. He discovered that the average number of hours the faculty members spent per week was 47.3 with a minimum of 30 and a maximum of 79. The time of the faculty was divided as follows: recitation, 12 percent; laboratory drawing, 21 percent; preparation, 8 percent; marking, 8 percent; course development, 14 percent; interviews, 5 percent; office routine, 7 percent; various duties, 12 percent; miscellaneous, 6 percent; and night school duties, 8 percent.

The Measurement of Teaching Load

The problem of teacher load as Douglass (452) pointed out, is rather complex. It is not confined alone to the ratio of teachers to pupils. Investigators have accepted quite generally the hypothesis that the number of preparations a teacher makes and the fields of his specialization determine to some extent the amount of preparation required for each class. With these and other factors in mind, Douglass developed a formula to measure teaching load. His formula follows:

$$T.L. = S.C. \left(C.P. - \frac{2 \text{ Dup.}}{10} \div \frac{N.P. - 20 \text{ C.P.}}{100} \right) \div \frac{P.C.}{2} \frac{P.L. \div 55}{100}$$

T.L. = Teaching load

S.C. = The subject coefficient

C.P. = Number of class periods taught per week

Dup. = Number of class periods devoted to duplicate sections

N.P. = Number of pupil periods taught per week

P.C. = Class periods spent in cooperatives, study halls, and extracurriculum

P.L. = Length of class period

The formula has been applied in studies of teaching load in a number of states throughout the country.

Diehl (449) concluded that the teaching of four or more different subjects increased the teaching load 41 percent, while teaching an equal number of duplicate sections increased the load only 24 percent.

The Load of Different Teaching Groups

Quanbeck and Douglass (465) used the Douglass formula to study the teaching load of 1,263 teachers and principals in 120 Minnesota high schools. The schools were selected so as to furnish representative samples of schools in various parts of the state. The authors concluded that (a) teachers in small schools have heavier teaching loads than teachers in large schools; (b) teachers of foreign language, industrial arts, home economics, and physical education have lighter loads than do others; (c) teachers in accredited schools have greater loads than those in unaccredited schools; (d) beginning teachers have greater loads than experienced ones; and (e) administrators carry loads sufficiently large to invite criticism.

Douglass and Taylor (451), again using the Douglass formula, studied the teaching load of 767 high-school teachers in 84 schools in Montana. They came to the following conclusions: (a) the smaller the schools in Montana, the greater the load, although the differences were not great; (b) English and science teachers have the heaviest loads; (c) music and physical education teachers have the lightest loads; (d) men carry slightly heavier loads than do women; and (e) new teachers carry heavier loads than do experienced teachers. Another study of load was made in Iowa by Saupe and Douglass (467).

Subject Combinations Assigned

Douglass and Stroud (450), in a study of the teaching load of 1,024 high-school teachers in the state of Minnesota, discovered that 30 percent of the teachers teach more than five classes. Of those with less than five classes (32.5 percent), time was taken by administrative, coaching, and other classroom duties. More than 70 percent of the teachers of science in Minnesota high schools teach in two, three, or four different fields. One teacher in seven taught in more than four fields, and only one in seven taught in one field only. It was discovered that the science teachers of Minnesota are teaching classes in fields in which they do not have college majors or minors. The proportion was larger in physics than in any of the other sciences.

Walker (473) showed the many different subjects taught by health and physical education teachers.

The situation regarding the overspecialization of teachers in the fields of their interest is getting considerable attention in a number of colleges and universities. Davis (447), in a report of the North Central Association

of Colleges and Secondary Schools, stated that in teacher training there seemed to be a trend toward broader training in fields directly related to the teacher's department of specialization. In consequence, there is an increase in the number of semester hours allotted to the teacher's field of specialization and the related subjects. Furthermore, he stated that there is a trend toward the establishment of a five-year course for the training of all secondary teachers to give them an opportunity not only to specialize but also to secure a broader background for the different subjects which they might be called upon to teach.

This topic is dealt with more exhaustively in the following chapter.

Effect of Class Size on Learning

Hand and Smith (458) studied the achievement of pupils in general business training in classes numbering 105, 25, and 22 pupils. The pupils had been matched by intelligence and the Crabbe-Slinker Achievement Test in General Business Training. On the achievement test of 440 items, the small class made an average score of 174.7 and the large class, 177.5. According to the authors, the difference in the score was not statistically significant and was probably due to chance factors.

Dalthrop (446) studied the achievement in English composition in two classes, one made up of 11 pupils and the other of 39. The Tressler English Tests were used to measure the results. The same methods of teaching were used in the two classes. Thirty minutes were used for recitation and class work and 22 minutes were used for preparation of the work and individual help by the teacher. He reported two findings. First, the improvement of large and small classes was practically the same for the semester, 11.3 points and 11.4 points. However, at the end of only 12 weeks, on the basis of scores made on the Pressey tests, the small class made a greater improvement than the large class. Second, the teacher thought the large class was more interesting to teach.

Eastburn (453) studied the effect of class size in the eleventh grade. Two small classes of 30 each and one large class of 60 were organized on each of three ability levels. The pupils were matched on (a) Terman Group Test of Mental Ability, (b) Columbia Research Bureau American History Test, (c) Columbia Research Bureau English Test, (d) total grade points earned in Grades IX and X, (e) chronological age, and (f) sex. The same course of study was used in all groups, although no prescribed method of teaching was followed.

Measurements of achievement were made by means of the following tests: (a) Columbia Research Bureau American History Test, (b) Iowa General Information Test in American History, (c) Columbia Research Bureau English Test, (d) Iowa Placement Test in English Training, (e) Iowa High School Content Examination, Literature Section, (f) new type objective tests, and (g) unit tests.

The following conclusions were drawn:

1. Pupils in Grade IX in American history on the upper ability level and in American history on the middle ability level did slightly better in classes of 30 than in classes of 60, but the difference was probably due to chance.

2. Eleventh-grade pupils of the middle ability level in English did better in classes of 60. The difference was greater than could be accounted for by chance.

3. Eleventh-grade pupils of the lower ability level in American history and in English did slightly better in classes of 60, but the difference could be accounted for by chance factors.

4. Class size does not appear to be a vital factor in determining the development of 43 attitudes measured by the Hand-Carley "Student Reaction Form," (a) greater variety of opinions expressed in large classes; (b) large classes foster the development of a greater degree of self-dependence.

Stewart (469) reported a study conducted to determine the efficiency of instruction in a typical high school when all classes were larger and when the subject plan of instruction was used to meet the problem arising in the teaching of large classes. "Large classes in history, English, biology, and algebra can be taught efficiently by the subject plan according to the evidence obtained." Pupils of the lower levels of ability are not handicapped in large classes. The reaction of both teachers and pupils was favorable, and differs from that which is ordinarily given. Over 90 of the pupils thought the plan was better than that used previously. Results were compared with standards for the country and favored the classes in the school studied.

Gains and losses in large classes—At least one study has been made to discover what pupils lose by being in large classes. There seems to be considerable evidence to show that the acquisition of knowledges and skills as measured by achievement tests is as great in large classes as in small classes.

Baker (439) attempted to find out whether teachers became as well acquainted with pupils in large classes as they did in small classes. In his study he used 27 teachers and 250 pupils in classes of 35 pupils or more and 25 pupils or less. The subjects involved were English, social science, science, mathematics, foreign languages, home economics, practical arts, and art. The schools used in the experiment ranged in size from 255 to 5,400. The teachers were asked questions about the pupils. These questions included such topics as general ability to learn, special abilities, physical status and health, present educational status, interest and hobbies, personality and adjustment. He found that the teachers were better acquainted with pupils in the small classes than in the larger classes. The difference, though small, was 4.26 percent in favor of small classes. The author stated that this difference is statistically reliable. In terms of the items used, this gain is nearly 20 percent of the teacher's knowledge of pupils. The author stated that in his opinion the difference of the knowledge gained may be very important, or even crucial.

Sound pictures in large classes—Stoddard (470) reported a study of nine classes to determine whether sound pictures might be of especial value

in large classes. He used three experimental groups of 150 pupils each, three large control groups of the same size, and three small control groups of 40 pupils each. The pupils were in Grade VI and were matched by intelligence, social background, chronological age, and educational achievement. The work was divided into six units of instruction, three in science and three in music. The author discovered that the large control group gained 8.2 percent less than the small control group, while the large experimental group gained 4.7 percent more than the small control group. The experimental large group with pictures gained 12.9 percent more than the control large group. He came to the conclusion that (a) classes of 150, taught with the same conventional methods and devices as classes of 40, do not learn as much, but classes of 150, taught through the substitution of sound pictures for some of the methods and devices used in teaching classes of 40, learn more than classes of 40; and (b) sound pictures must be considered a real factor in the conclusions drawn about learning in large classes.

Summary

The studies related to teaching load and class size made during the last three years may be summarized as follows:

1. The problems of teaching load and class size are not confined to the United States but are common to other countries.
2. There was a general tendency from 1930 to 1935 to reduce the median size of class in the kindergarten and elementary schools and to increase the median size of class in the junior and senior high schools.
3. Factors other than ratio of teachers to pupils should be considered in determining the teaching load. The formula developed by Douglass shows the complexity of the problem.
4. Attention has been given to an analysis of the teacher's day outside of classroom activities. In general, the number of hours spent on school duties outside the classroom equals the number spent in the classroom.
5. Colleges and universities are emphasizing the need of broadening the teacher's fields of specialization.
6. Studies of the effect of class size upon achievement have been made mostly in the secondary schools. The results are as yet inconclusive.
7. At least one study reported an attempt to discover what pupils lost by being in large classes. The loss was considerable in terms of what teachers knew about pupils.
8. Little advance has been made in answering the questions: How heavy a load should a teacher carry? and What is the maximum size of class acceptable in any division of the schools?

CHAPTER IX

Teaching Combinations in High Schools

TEACHING COMBINATIONS in high schools were reviewed by Umstadd (512) three years ago. His treatment included one nationwide survey and one or more investigations for each of seventeen states. During the past triennium a number of studies of major importance have appeared.

Investigations that contribute to our knowledge of subject combinations frequently deal also with teacher training and certification, as well as the teaching load. There is, therefore, some duplication between this chapter and the preceding one. The titles of a number of the references in the bibliography indicate the range and variety of studies which include material on subject combinations.

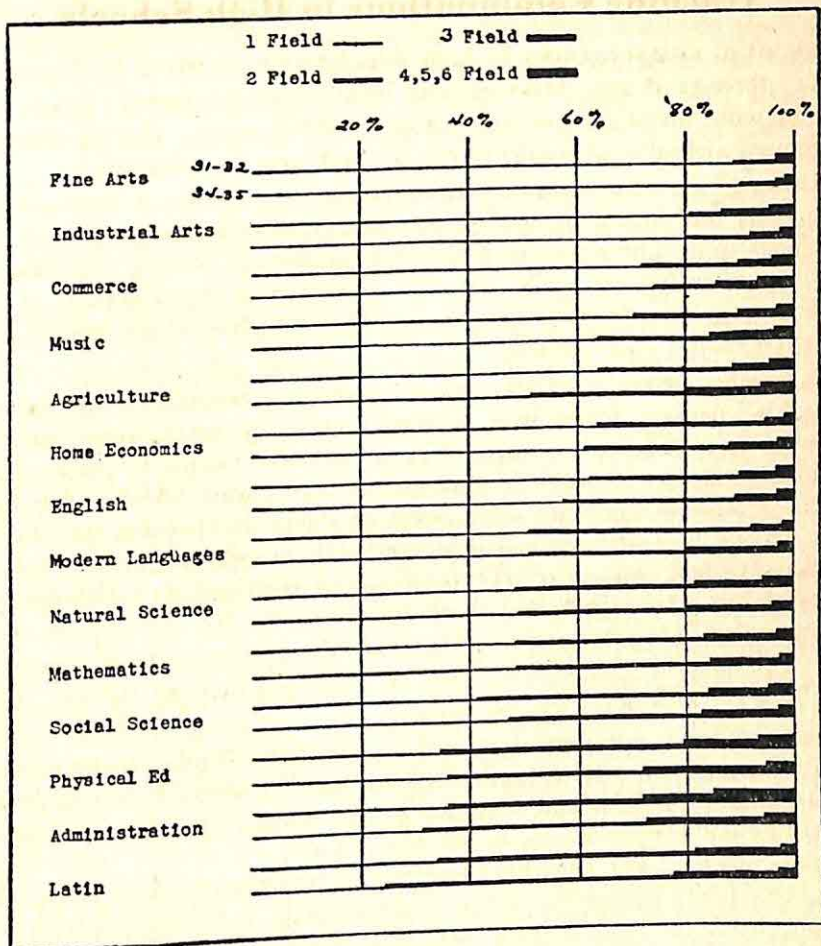
A number of the investigators restricted their research to one subject or subject-field as found in a particular state during a single year, as Dunbar and Mannon's study (487) of subjects taught by high-school chemistry teachers in South Dakota for the school year 1933-34. Based on official records in the State Department of Public Instruction, they found that, of 304 four-year accredited high schools, 71 offer chemistry with 72 teachers teaching this subject. Of these, only 5 teach nothing but chemistry; 20 teach one other science and chemistry; 14 more have combinations with mathematics. Their conclusion is that students planning to teach chemistry should prepare to teach two or more subjects, and that one-third of them will have to teach non-science subjects.

Savage (506), using official records of the Pennsylvania Department of Public Instruction, studied commercial teaching combinations for 1929-30, 1931-32, and 1933-34, and showed that the range in number of subjects taught by one teacher was from one to eight, and the median number was two and one-half. For 1933-34, 14 percent of combinations were within the commerce field; 29 percent of the teachers taught one subject only, book-keeping being the most frequent one. For this same year different subject combinations of 382 commercial teachers in first-class districts numbered 62; in second-class districts 229 teachers taught 123 different combinations; and in third-class districts 572 teachers taught 183 different combinations, showing a decided increase in combinations for schools of the second and third classifications.

Malmberg (498), using Illinois school directories for his data, included all the high-school subjects in his study of high-school positions in Illinois, from 1931-32 to 1934-35. The tabulation of high-school positions, 11,884 in 1931-32 compared with 1934-35, are summarized in Figure 1.

A definite tendency toward prevalence of certain two-subject combinations was noted; for instance, physical education with science comprised 23.6 percent of two-subject combinations for 1931-32, and 22.5 percent

FIGURE 1.—PERCENT OF SINGLE DUTY AND COMBINED POSITIONS IN THE SUBJECT FIELDS COMPARED, 1931-32 AND 1934-35, (498).



for 1934-35. The least prevalent two-subject combination was art with mathematics, which had 3 percent and 1 percent, respectively, for these two periods. Three- and four-subject combinations showed some prevalence but the variation in combinations above two was very marked. Significant changes in positions from 1931-32 to 1934-35 showed that foreign languages, home economics, and industrial arts suffered decided losses during the depression years, with improved conditions for 1934-35. One general conclusion drawn was that the problem of subject combinations in Illinois was largely the problem of the small high school (498:32).

Elder (488) restricted the scope of her study to 507 teaching positions in 93 small New Jersey high schools in 1931-32, showing the following percents of frequency of combination with home economics: English, 37.5

percent; music, 22.2 percent; social science, 16.7 percent; art, 7.8 percent. Only 7.8 percent of the teachers taught home economics alone. Byers (482), in her study of the same subject, found prevalent combinations with home economics in the following order: related art, biology, English, physical education, general science, and health.

Geiger (491) studied the schedules and programs of 47 medium-sized (250-500) high schools in Iowa and Nebraska, and found that in 1933-34, only 2 out of 732 teachers taught in more than 3 fields. Two-thirds taught in one field, and about one-third in two fields.

Manchester (499), in her study of the professional duties and responsibilities of women high-school physical education teachers in Ohio, attempted to cover all the factors that influence efficiency. She concluded that the woman teacher in physical education should be prepared to teach in at least three fields in a small high school but in only two fields in high schools of over 500 pupils. She also found that combinations with physical education were not confined to specific fields or to logical combinations. In high schools with enrolments above 500, the tendency was toward hygiene as second subject; in schools with enrolments between 100 and 500, the combination subjects tended to be English, hygiene, and home economics; in schools with less than 100 pupils, emphasis was on English, home economics, dramatics, and languages as combinations with physical education.

Bassett (479) investigated the teaching activities of a group of non-vocational home economics teachers in the three states of Kansas, Missouri, and Oklahoma. She presented a wide range of teaching activities in this group. The most common combinations were with: English, social science, physical education, and biology. Only 50 percent of the time was spent in teaching home economics. Kansas showed greater variation than other states.

The two research studies that were more extensive, including a review of 46 studies of twenty-one states, a study of the Southern states, and 2 national studies, were those of Potthoff (503) and Henzlik and others (493). These were made for the North Central Association and have not been completed at the present time. Some of the pertinent conclusions revealed by these studies are:

1. Chaotic conditions exist with respect to subject combinations.
2. Many combinations are illogical.
3. Courses in the same department are frequently divided among several teachers rather than grouped under a single teacher.
4. A large majority of teachers in both small and large high schools teach in only one or two fields.
5. Special subject teachers have fewer combinations than do academic teachers.
6. Even when majors are considered as a broad field, seldom do half of the instructors teach only in their major field.
7. Beginning teachers often find their positions in small high schools where the problem of subject combinations is the most acute.

Evaluation and Suggestions for Further Research

During the last three years there has been considerable attention devoted to investigating high-school positions. The work that the committee for the North Central Association has done and has planned to do, promises to attain certain practical results. Umstattd (511) indicated that there has been an improvement in high-school teaching positions. The Illinois Teachers Association passed a resolution looking toward improvement of certification. There is need for coordinated action to secure limitation of subject combinations that are undesirable.

Other contributions similar to those reviewed will be found in the bibliography. In order that these may be presented in a systematic outline, indicating the states that have been covered for one or more subjects, the following résumé is given:

State	Author
Illinois -----	Battershell and others (480), Benner (481), Hood and Clevenger (494), Leamon (497), Malmberg (498)
Indiana -----	Byers (482)
Iowa -----	Smith (508)
Kansas -----	Bassett (479)
Michigan -----	Taylor (509), Todd (510)
Missouri -----	Bassett (479)
Nebraska -----	Dickerson (485)
New Jersey -----	Elder (488)
New York -----	Kerbel (496), Winslow (517)
Ohio -----	Emmert (489), Harger (492), Manchester (499), Puderbaugh (505)
Oklahoma -----	Bassett (479)
Pennsylvania -----	Mason (500), Savage (506)
South Dakota -----	Dunbar and Mannon (487)
Texas -----	Faubian (490), Warren (515)
West Virginia -----	Meredith (501)
Wisconsin -----	Walters (513, 514)

CHAPTER X

Physical and Mental Health of Teachers and Administrative Adjustments

NINETEEN PUBLICATIONS regarding the health of the teacher and appearing during the years 1934, 1935, and 1936 were located in the literature reviewed. These articles dealt with teacher absences, practices as to sick leave granted by boards of education, health requirements for teachers, tests of emotional stability, questionnaire returns regarding mental health and adjustment difficulties of teachers, and suggestions for securing and maintaining health in teachers. A review of the literature for previous years was given in an earlier issue (529).

Dowell (519) analyzed the amount and frequency of illness of 921 women elementary-school teachers of Baltimore, Maryland, who taught continuously between the years 1924 and 1930. She found that teachers more than forty years of age were absent more days per year than were younger teachers, but that they were absent less often and for periods of longer duration. Principals, teachers who had been promoted, and single teachers were ill less frequently than were those of the opposite categories.

From reports of 600 teachers, Hicks (521) found that one-fifth of the women teachers were unduly nervous; that 11 percent had had nervous breakdowns; that one-half took no daily exercise; that 12 percent knew they were anemic; that 7 percent had lung trouble; and that 7 percent had had heart disease. A psychoneurotic condition was found to be twice as prevalent among women teachers as among men. O'Malley (524) studied the annoyances and irritations of teachers and the relationships between these situations and factors in personality, training, and experience. Peck (525), using questionnaires and tests of personal adjustment, found that from one-third to one-fifth of the 100 women teachers reporting had adjustment difficulties in the matter of living quarters, recreation, congenial associates, restricted social activities, or unusual community demands of their time. One-fifth reported health problems serious enough to be sources of maladjustment or over-fatigue. He found that women teachers were not so well adjusted as were other women students. Married women teachers were less well adjusted than were the single ones. The more experienced teachers were better adjusted than were the less experienced ones.

Phillips (526) included studies of emotional stability in his investigation of the characteristics of active and prospective teachers. Urell (532) developed indexes of the contentment of women teachers in elementary schools. Boynton and others (518) studied the emotional stability of teachers and pupils of the fifth and sixth grades who had been together for two and one-half months. "Emotionally unstable teachers tend to have associated with those children who tend toward instability, whereas

emotionally stable teachers tend to be associated with more emotionally stable pupils."

A clear discussion of the personality problems of teachers along with definite rules of mental hygiene was given by Stoddard (530). Wilkes (533) suggested that "teachers should be assayed more completely as to their qualifications for the job long before they are actually placed on the job." He recommended that the board of education provide medical advice and supervision of the habits and practices of the teachers as these affect their health. Specific physical handicaps which would bar a teacher are suggested. Zachary (534) pointed out the importance of having well-adjusted teachers in our schools.

A group budget plan was recommended to provide for necessary medical expenses (522). Harris (520) outlined a program for conserving the health of teachers. Sundwall (531) mentioned ways of keeping and improving health.

A pamphlet by Rogers (528) listed practices of city school systems in 1934, in matters of health service, pay for sick leave, sabbatical leave, and sickness insurance provisions. The data were tabulated separately for cities of over 100,000 population, cities of 30,000 to 100,000 population, and for cities of 10,000 to 30,000 population. More than 30 percent of these cities required health certificates. In one-fifth of the large cities and one-twelfth of the small ones examination by the school physician was required. Few schools specified definite ailments as bars to employment. All but 7 percent had sick leave provisions. Most of these were for a specified number of days per year. Some were cumulative. Few cities granted sabbatical leaves. Some group insurance was found. Free consultation service was reported not to have produced the best response. The author recommended that training schools should not accept students likely to be barred from teaching for physical defects. He recommended an indefinite sick leave. A growing and positive interest in teacher welfare was noted.

CHAPTER XI

Teachers' Salaries

THERE has been relatively little research in the field of teachers' salaries during the past three years. Many articles have been written on the general topic but few significant suggestions have evolved as the result of thorough analysis and investigation. Most of the studies have been local or restricted to state areas, and can scarcely be termed research projects.

The student of this problem, therefore, who is looking for guidance will be somewhat disappointed in the contributions made in this field since the last report on teachers' salaries appearing in the *Review of Educational Research*. Only a few studies will be cited and the reader will be referred to the bibliography for a more complete list of the writings on this topic during the period under consideration.

Welch (576) studied teachers' salaries in Missouri in 1935 and analyzed data on 804 teachers in 65 first-class high schools for the school year 1934-35. He found that the median salary of teachers increased with additional amounts of college training and that the increase was greater for professional training than for either college or academic training.

May (552) studied trends in Indiana teachers' salaries in comparison with changing economic conditions. He reported that salaries had been reduced excessively when compared with the cost of living and with the salaries of other governmental employees. May also discovered that teachers' salaries declined about the same as total local tax receipts during the years 1930-34.

Maney (551) reported on the status of teachers' salaries in Kentucky in 1935-36. The author concluded that salaries were exceedingly inadequate for both elementary- and high-school teachers since 68 percent of Kentucky teachers were receiving less than \$600 per year.

Goodwin (547) made a study of the history of teachers' salaries in the elementary schools of the city of New York covering the period 1880-1930. The conclusions reached were that teachers' salaries had been relatively low until recently. She found that, prior to 1929, they were even lower than for workers in other fields. The author pointed out that until teachers learned to organize and began to appeal to outside groups for help in the campaign for living wages, they were forced to accept inadequate salaries.

The National Education Association (559) reported trends in restoration of teachers' salaries in a series of bulletins covering the period 1934-36. The information in these bulletins is given by states, and cities within the states, at various times, during the years mentioned. Where the questionnaires upon which the studies were based provided information, statements about proposed trends in future salary changes are included.

Grasse (548) reported in 1934 on the failure of boards of school directors to meet their financial obligations in certain typical districts in Pennsylvania. He found that 5,432 teachers were in arrears in salaries and that the only hope for solving the problem lay in greater state support.

Merritt (553) studied the effect of financial depressions upon mandatory salary legislation for teachers. This study is a rather comprehensive analysis of state salary legislation during periods of prosperity and during periods of depression. He concluded that teachers' salaries were raised very noticeably during periods of prosperity, and that marked decreases occurred in times of depression. The effect of mandatory legislation upon these decreases is discussed in considerable detail.

Cooke (540) studied the adequacy of salaries for white and negro teachers in eleven Southern states. He reported the average cost of living for white teachers to be approximately 48 percent of their average salary, and for negro teachers approximately 64 percent.

The National Education Association (555) summarized facts on certain features of 150 city salary schedules. This study dealt with the machinery set up for determining variations in teachers' salaries and called attention to certain items of form and organization of interest to persons responsible for preparing salary schedules.

Two bulletins of the Research Division of the National Education Association (560, 561) dealt with the preparation of teachers' salary schedules and were based on practices reported by 222 superintendents of schools and on the published reports of 22 local salary studies. Practically every phase of salary scheduling is discussed in these bulletins.

A committee of the National Education Association (564) studied the teacher's economic position. This report is a very comprehensive one containing facts and recommendations regarding the financial conditions of teachers, their income, expenditures, savings, cost of living, and standard of living. Formulas were suggested for establishing minimum and maximum salaries.

Shuttleworth (571) made a comprehensive study of the relationships of cost of living, dollar incomes and real incomes for teachers and for wage-earners from 1890 to 1934. He concluded that the outlook for the immediate future with the prospect of rising prices is unfavorable for teachers as compared with the outlook for wage-earners in general.

In another article dealing with the same topic, Shuttleworth (570) concluded that the real income of teachers should be determined by the changes in the cost of living, and he recommended an attempt to shorten the lag by deriving an adequate and authoritative index of the cost of living of teachers.

Scates (568) studied the methods of estimating probable future costs of a salary schedule and presented six technics for predicting salary schedule costs.

CHAPTER XII

Tenure of Teachers

Teacher Turnover, Tenure in the Position and in the Profession

THE National Survey of the Education of Teachers (580) furnished figures on the rate of turnover of the largest sampling of teachers ever included in a single study (over 370,000). The data were reported in the form of "mobility ratios," as follows: elementary, 1-4.87; junior high school, 1-6.73; senior high school, 1-4.88. Reduced to more familiar form, these figures indicate that the following percents of all teachers included were new to their positions: elementary, 20.5; junior high school, 14.9; senior high school, 20.5. Wide variations in mobility ratio were found between states: for elementary teachers, from 1-2.15 in North Dakota to 1-15.62 in Rhode Island; junior high-school teachers, from 1-2.88 in North Dakota to 1-11.13 in New York; senior high-school teachers, from 1-2.57 in Idaho to 1-13.19 in Rhode Island.

Simon (593) found the following percents of turnover in Indiana in 1931: town schools, teachers, 17.4, principals, 18.1, superintendents, 7.2, total, 16.4; township schools, teachers, 35.0, principals, 35.4, total, 35.2.

The National Survey of Secondary Education (581), in its study of smaller secondary schools, reported that the median number of years of teaching experience of teachers in the schools included in the study was 3.4 years, ranging from 2.9 years in those schools with 40 or less students to 4.6 years in those with over 300. For all schools, 34.2 percent of the teachers had taught two years or less, and 44.1 percent five years or more. For the smallest schools, these percents were 52.4 and 35.5; for the group with the largest enrolment, they were 26.0 and 55.3, respectively. The same study reported that the median number of years in the same position was 1.4 for all schools, ranging from 0.8 years in the smallest schools to 1.8 years in the largest. In all schools, 42.5 percent of the teachers had been in the same position one year or less, and 28.4 percent more than three years. For the smallest schools these percents were 57.6 and 9.6; and for the largest schools included, 36.4 and 37.6, respectively.

Simon (593) reported an increase in mean tenure of position in town schools in Indiana from 3.15 years in 1926-27 to 4.86 years in 1932-33; in township schools, from 2.62 in 1926-27 to 3.44 in 1932-33. He also found that the average number of years of experience of teachers in town schools who remained in their positions in 1931-32 was 9.0 years as compared with 6.1 years for those withdrawing; in township schools the means were 7.4 years and 5.9 years, respectively. He reported that the average salary of teachers remaining in their positions was slightly higher than the average for those withdrawing, but he found no significant difference between average training of the two groups.

Surveys of conditions of tenure or turnover in particular states or cities have also been made by Bain (577) for elementary teachers in Indiana; by Martin (586) for Cincinnati; and Stone (594) for California.

Causes of Turnover

The National Survey of the Education of Teachers (580), in its studies of supply and demand, under the heading "Reasons for Demand," furnished valuable basic data on the reasons teachers leave positions. The percents of new teachers whose predecessors left for various reasons are given in Table 3.

TABLE 3.—REASONS CREATING DEMAND FOR NEW TEACHERS,
BY PERCENT (580)

	Elementary teachers	Junior high- school teachers	Senior high- school teachers
Predecessor died	0.7	1.0	0.8
Predecessor retired	6.0	3.6	3.6
Predecessor entered college	6.4	6.1	5.5
Predecessor married	16.4	13.6	12.7
Predecessor left to teach somewhere else in the state...	42.2	28.0	33.3
Predecessor left to teach in another state.....	3.2	7.6	9.8
Predecessor entered another profession or occupation...	6.5	7.2	9.1
Predecessor left on leave of absence, illness, etc.....	3.6	4.6	3.5

For some of these reasons there was wide variation among schools of various sizes. Thus, the percent entering college varied from 8.0 in one- and two-room rural schools to 1.2 in cities over 100,000; and the percent moving within the state varied from 51.1 to 20.3 for the same groups.

Simon (593) classified the reasons for cases of dismissal and cases of voluntary withdrawal of staff members in Indiana secondary schools (see Table 4).

Among *professional* reasons for dismissal the most important were: weakness in discipline (91 cases), lack of necessary subject combinations (90 cases); among *political* reasons, desire to avoid tenure law (371 cases), election of new trustees (197 cases), replacement by local teachers (130 cases); among *personal* reasons, deficiency in personal traits (55 cases), marriage (46 cases), problem case in conduct (42 cases); among *economic* reasons, reduction of staff (57 cases). Among reasons for voluntary withdrawal the most important were: desire to secure promotion (409 cases), marriage (130 cases).

In another study Simon (592) obtained data concerning the causes of dismissal of 1,769 administrators and teachers. He found that 20.8 percent of the administrators and 18.8 percent of all were dismissed for personal reasons. These personal reasons he classified under six heads. He found that the following percents of dismissals could be charged to the lack of the

TABLE 4.—MAJOR CAUSES OF REASONS ASSIGNED FOR DISMISSAL AND VOLUNTARY WITHDRAWAL OF STAFF MEMBERS IN INDIANA SECONDARY SCHOOLS (593)

Cause	Percent of all causes	
	Town schools	Township schools
Cases of dismissal:		
Professional	14.8	13.5
Political	16.2	33.4
Personal	10.3	6.5
Economic	3.9	3.5
Community	1.4	2.5
Miscellaneous	2.8	1.5
Cases of voluntary withdrawal:		
Professional	22.1	18.9
Political	0.0	0.4
Personal	16.8	9.2
Economic	7.5	7.5
Community	0.6	0.1
Miscellaneous	1.7	0.4
Unknown	2.0	2.6
All causes	100.0	100.0

personal trait or characteristic indicated: leadership, 40.7; refinement, 21.4; cooperation, 18.4; adaptability, 10.2; industry, 4.8; honesty, 4.5.

Permanent or Indefinite Tenure Legislation

The Research Division of the National Education Association (590) reviewed the activity and present and past position of the Association on tenure. The report shows that at the present time four states have laws providing permanent tenure after a probationary period for all teachers, six others have such provisions applying to certain districts; and 3 have continuing contracts. Data are furnished which indicate that the percents of teachers coming under various provisions concerning tenure in 1932 were as follows:

	Percent
Teachers in states without tenure legislation of any type	35
Teachers in states with an annual election plan	19
Teachers entitled to tenure after a probationary period	23
Teachers under continuing contract laws	6
Teachers in districts which are permitted by law to issue contracts for more than one year	10
Unclassified	7

The bulletin also reports conditions of teacher tenure in fifteen foreign countries, showing that, in general, teachers have much more permanent tenure than in the United States.

Betts (578), using the questionnaire returns received in connection with the National Survey of the Education of Teachers, studied the effects

of several kinds of permanent or indefinite tenure laws. He found a much lower rate of turnover in states with statewide tenure laws, and a somewhat lower rate in states with partially applicable tenure, than in comparable states with no tenure legislation. He reported, however, that significant differences were found only in rural schools and in villages, to which the partially applicable laws do not apply. He found more movement to and from other teaching positions in the state, and to and from other occupations, in non-tenure than in tenure states. He also reported more teachers coming from teacher-training institutions in the state and from colleges and universities, and more leaving because of marriage, in non-tenure than in statewide tenure states. He found that tenure through efficient selection was more effective than tenure through difficult dismissal.

Simon (591) reported that interviews with town and county superintendents in Indiana revealed that 26.5 percent of the former and 56.3 percent of the latter were definitely opposed to the tenure law then in operation. Only 24.1 percent of the former and 8.0 percent of the latter were definitely in favor and the remainder gave qualified answers. A survey of reasons for dismissal showed that 370 out of 776 dismissals in township schools and 40 out of 90 in the cities during a six-year period were traceable definitely to the tenure law and the refusal of the superintendents to retain the teachers beyond the probationary period. DuShane (587), however, reported that the results of an inquiry among city school superintendents in Indiana, in which replies were received from 83 out of the 102 cities in the state, indicate that the benefits of the tenure law have outweighed the detriments.

The National Education Association (589) summarized the cases on tenure decided up to 1935, finding that 40 had been decided in favor of the teacher and 29 against the teacher. A later bulletin (588) reported that during 1935 there were 22 cases decided in favor of the teacher and 20 against. In each of these reports there is included first a summary of the decisions, under the headings "Permanent," "Probationary," and "Not under Permanent Tenure." This is followed by a digest of cases.

Garber (582, 583, 584) reviewed important cases coming under tenure legislation, indicating under what conditions teachers may be dismissed, under what conditions the teacher may appeal to the courts, and what type of action may be instituted. Hall (585) reviewed the court decisions on cases of dismissal for the years 1933-35, thus bringing up to date earlier complications. Chambers (579) reviewed some of the difficulties encountered in obtaining clear precedents in court decisions on points in the California tenure law. Legal aspects of tenure are also treated in Chapter XIV.

CHAPTER XIII

Pensions and Retirement Pay

COOKE AND WITHERINGTON (600) in 1934 reviewed the educational literature on this topic for the years 1931, 1932, and 1933. During the subsequent three years 55 reports appeared on teachers' pensions and retirement systems which seem worthy of review in this chapter.

Philosophy—Social and Economic

In a plea for a social security plan for teachers who have lost youth and personality, and thereby ability in their work, it was maintained that such a plan is not charity but simple justice (637). This contention is based on both social and economic grounds. It is further maintained that much social good will be the result. Givens (611), in an appeal to the National Committee on Economic Security, urged the inclusion of teachers in the program being planned for economic security, on the basis of present inadequate protection for the future, present low salaries, unemployment, inadequacy of present retirement systems, and the importance of teachers as a body. Jordan (619) suggested several plans of providing retirement safeguards, but held that pension or retirement funds are the best way to insure economic security.

Baldwin (596), in connection with a study of teachers' salaries, drew the following conclusions: If teaching is to attract and retain men and women of outstanding character and teaching power, it must have a professional salary schedule adequate to meet current living costs and to liquidate risks of personal accident, illness, unemployment, death, and old age; these figures can be reduced by adopting (a) a plan of retired pay with protected tenure professionally determined, (b) a plan of non-contributory, state-financed accident, health, and life insurance, (c) a plan of preparing, with a small margin for safety, only enough teachers to meet the forecast needs of schools. Givens (610) stressed the desirability of disseminating information regarding the importance of the work of teachers and their need for economic security. He calls attention to their unselfish work during the depression, and he believes they should benefit correspondingly by the return of better times.

Benefits and Advantages of Retirement Pay

Cain (597) listed the advantages of a retirement system as follows: (a) to protect children from teachers rendered incompetent by age; (b) to attract capable young people into the profession; (c) partially to compensate teachers for low salaries; (d) to increase efficiency while in the service; and (e) to keep in line with the practice of the best business concerns, industry, and government civil service. Norton (629) added that

paths would be opened for the promotion of younger teachers, in addition to protecting children from old teachers and inefficient ones. In an editorial it was pointed out that a retirement system benefits the teacher through giving him an optimistic outlook on life, and benefits the community by protecting its children from "unfit teachers" (637). Wilcox and Woods (645) gave thirteen reasons for state teacher-retirement legislation in promoting the Texas educational campaign.

Cooper (603, 605) contended that teachers are held in service after they have become unfit or less efficient, by provisions in the laws that require a high minimum retirement age, extended service before eligibility, and by failure to provide for reciprocal relations between systems, or failure to make an equitable adjustment in benefits for those in the higher salary brackets. In a study of the question of teacher retirement in Texas (604), he sent data sheets to state superintendents, secretaries of state teachers associations, and to city superintendents having either state or municipal retirement systems. Some of the advantages of a state retirement plan as summarized from these sources are as follows: (a) Teachers can change from one school to another without losing benefits; (b) it places all schools on a higher plane of efficiency; (c) it offers an equal opportunity to all teachers; (d) a statewide system can be financed easier; (e) it results in greater permanency; and (f) it equalizes conditions throughout the state in contributions and provisions for retirement allowances. He concluded that it is the duty of the state to attract high-grade employees to the profession, to encourage a long period of happy useful service, and to provide an honorable way out of the profession when useful service is concluded.

Fundamental Principles of Retirement Systems

Keesecker (620) and Cain (597) discussed the three general plans of retirement systems: (a) the free plan where all payments are made from general funds; (b) the contributory plan where all payments are made by teachers; and (c) the joint-contributory plan where payments are made both by teachers and from public funds. The last plan was considered the most secure for teachers by Keesecker (620), who added that a study of fundamental principles is a necessary prerequisite to the formulation and drafting of statewide retirement legislation.

Lantman (621) listed the following essentials for a sound retirement system: (a) joint contributions by both employer and employee; (b) creation of reserves; (c) periodic actuarial reviews to insure financial stability; (d) accumulated deposits made by employee to be returned with interest in case of withdrawal from service; (e) retirement on account of disability or service; (f) restriction of investment to highest and most conservative types; and (g) conservative, conscientious, and far-seeing administration. He added that in order to protect a sound system it is necessary to discourage attempts to liberalize the benefits; to discourage legislation to reduce service or age; to educate the teacher to the importance

of the system; and to recognize the fact that financial strength is of the utmost importance.

Gillespie (609) made the point that an unsound retirement system is worse than no system at all since it promises things it cannot accomplish; that the success of the retirement system depends entirely upon its solvency; that any benefit to beneficiaries not contemplated in the law means either weakening the fund or increasing the assessment; and that all interested in the system should be vitally interested in any legislation that may affect adversely the purchasing power of the retirement allowance.

Seyfried and Robinson (636) made the following recommendations: (a) compulsory membership for new teachers, optional for those in service; (b) annual retirement allowance adequate to support the employee after twenty-five years of service, in order to protect the public from inefficiency due to old age; (c) costs to be supported by employer and employee, on a fifty-fifty basis; (d) amount of contribution by employer and employee to be stipulated in the organic act creating the system; (e) contributions to be made regularly and concurrently by both parties; (f) individual accounts to be kept in each member's name by the retirement system; (g) an adequate actuarially sound reserve fund to be established; (h) rates of contributions should be adjusted on the basis of actuarial computations at regular intervals; (i) pension allowances granted to those disabled in service, who have had a specified term of service; (j) all equities to the employee's account to be paid to his heirs or estate at his death; (k) certain choices shall be allowed the employee as to the method of receiving the retirement allowance; (l) provisions to be made whereby those in service shall be able to accumulate pension benefits for past service; (m) if the plan supersedes another plan, the employee should be given benefits accrued under the former plan so far as justice and conditions warrant; (n) provisions for cooperative or reciprocal relations among retirement systems should be made; and (o) control and management should be centered in a retirement board, preferably non-partisan.

Eastman (606), in a discussion of retirement ages of teachers, concluded that the retirement age as well as the employing age should be lowered.

Status of Retirement Systems Now in Operation

Great Britain—In Great Britain it was shown that there must be material increase in teachers' contributions to make the fund adequate (635). Under the present law the greater part of the cost is borne by the Crown. In a discussion in the House of Commons in 1934 the fact was emphasized that the teachers who retire on the average of the last five years' earnings were at a serious disadvantage since their average was low due to reduced salaries (643). A special grant from the treasury was suggested in order to bring these pensions up to normal.

Illinois—Grimm (612) reviewed the eighteen sections of the Illinois pension bill. Five funds are to be established as follows: (a) annuity

savings fund, to which teachers pay 4 percent of their salaries, not less than \$30 or more than \$100; (b) annuity reserve fund, in which are held the reserves from which are paid the annuities in force; (c) pensions' accumulation fund, into which will go the state's contributions to provide pensions that will fall due as a result of teaching service now being rendered; (d) pension reserve fund, into which comes from (c) a sum sufficient to provide for the retirant who begins as a new teacher after the new act becomes effective; and (e) expense fund, from which are paid the expenses of the administration of the retirement system.

Indiana—The status of the State Teachers' Retirement Fund of Indiana was reported as follows (614):

Active members of the fund	18,448
Beginning teachers	1,404
Voluntary withdrawal	1,289
Withdrawal through death	55
Teachers retired on service annuity	141
Total teachers on service annuity	1,140
Teachers retired on disability benefits	39
Total teachers now on disability	139
Teachers who died while receiving annuity	57
Teachers who died while receiving disability	8

In this state the number of separate pension units decreased from 44 in 1918 to two in 1935.

Lexington, Kentucky—In a new plan put into operation at Lexington, Kentucky, Palmer (630) found that the membership included janitors, clerks, and other full-time employees; that the fund was to be a group rather than an individual enterprise; that teachers' contributions were on a graduated basis of 1 percent until the age of thirty is reached, then 2 percent until age forty, and then 3 percent thereafter; that actuarial service was used in establishing benefits; that benefits were graduated as to amount, based on number of annual contributions; that retirement age was sixty with maximum benefits at seventy; and that disability retirement is possible at age fifty. He concluded that the new plan was financially sound and was feasible for Lexington.

Michigan—Clifford (599) reported that in Michigan the retirement fund was supported entirely by deductions from the salaries of all teachers outside the city of Detroit (which had its own fund); that teachers with less than five full years of service paid 1 percent (but not over \$10) yearly; that those having from five to fifteen years of service paid 2 percent (but not over \$20) yearly; that after fifteen years of service teachers paid 3 percent (but not over \$30) yearly; and that annuities were paid to teachers who were (a) over sixty years of age, and (b) had taught twenty-five years, fifteen of which must have been in Michigan, with the last five years preceding retirement in Michigan.

Babcock (595) discussed the following proposed changes which the Michigan Retirement Fund Board has submitted as necessary to make the

law of that state sound, equitable, and secure. The board intends to incorporate these provisions into a bill to be introduced in the 1937 legislative session. They are as follows: (a) time limitation upon refunds for teachers who leave service to be extended from four to eighteen months; (b) refunds to be made to the estate of the teacher in case of death prior to retirement; (c) maximum annuity to be increased to \$1200 per year, minimum increased to \$450 per year, annuity to be figured on the basis of half the annual salary for any consecutive five years; (d) present rates continued, but maximum contribution raised; (e) the state to provide funds to carry out the provisions of the revised law; (f) the new plan to include all the employees of the state department of education who are legally teachers; and (g) the Detroit Teacher Retirement Fund to benefit from the state fund in the proportion that the number of teachers in Detroit bears to the number of teachers in Michigan.

Michigan Teachers' Retirement Fund records showed that there is a gradual increase in median age and in years of service among teachers (598).

Nevada—Three characteristics of the retirement system in Nevada were as follows (628): (a) teachers must contribute \$12 per year to the Public School Teachers Permanent Fund; (b) on application to Retirement Salary Fund Board (if teachers leave the service) the teacher will be refunded all his payments in excess of a sum equal to five years of payments; (c) the schoolboard decides when to deduct the \$12. At present it is deducted in equal instalments in October and February.

New Jersey—In a historical review of the New Jersey Pension and Annuity Fund, Housman (616) concluded that the fund is actuarially sound; that it is a joint-contributory fund; that there are provisions for superannuation, for thirty-five-year service retirement, for disability, for withdrawal and death benefits, and for optional membership; and that defaults due to boards of education amounted to \$160,017.37.

New Mexico—Seyfried and Robinson (636) stated that the retirement plan of New Mexico, which was adopted in 1933, is basically weak in that it is not on an actuarial basis and provides no reserve fund to care for liabilities; that the retirement allowance is inadequate and is not graduated in proportion to the contributions of the teacher; that no provision has been made for past services; that no assurance is offered that the state will make its contributions regularly or in an amount sufficient to meet its obligations. They found the strong points of the plan to be joint contributions; disability allowance; and return of deposits when the teacher leaves the state educational system.

New York—Gillespie (608, 609), in a study of the retirement system of New York State, reported that the fund is in better condition than one year ago when it was reported that the investments were higher than they had been for some time; that various troubles have been successfully overcome; and that the investments of funds have been wisely made. The

- ° Retirement Board of New York State in its general financial statement for the year showed the system to be in good financial condition (639). Continued conservative administration of the fund is recommended in order to keep the system solvent.

Pennsylvania—In the *Pennsylvania School Journal* (607) were presented, in summary form, various questions and answers concerning the Pennsylvania Public School Employees' Retirement System. These questions related to organization and membership, management, plan of operation, contributions, superannuation retirement allowance, options, conditions of retirement, funds, interesting facts, transfers, resignations, and dismissal. The intention was to present facts which the teachers in the system should know.

South Carolina—Hamilton (613), in a survey of the situation in South Carolina, found that there is no plan in operation in that state but that the teachers are strongly in favor of the installation of a system. The plan devised by the state association in 1928 has not been tried owing to lack of funds.

Virginia—The Virginia retirement plan was reported unsound by Sulfridge (641) who found that the teachers are paying \$150,000 per year into the fund, while the state is paying only \$20,000. In spite of appeals to the legislature nothing has been done to relieve the situation.

In general—Keesecker (620) reported that twenty-five of the forty-eight states now have statewide systems, and that the state is the best agency for providing security with respect to retirement. In general, he favored the breakdown of local systems.

General Trends of Retirement Systems

In the 1934 report of the Committee on Retirement Allowances of the National Education Association (624), it was found that six states reported an increase in service retirements from 1930 to 1934; ten states reported an increase in retirements for age; eight states reported an increase in retirements for disability, while one state reported a decrease. There were few changes in legislation affecting retirement ages. The income from public funds, on the whole, increased, and various states, notably Pennsylvania, New Jersey, Vermont, Illinois, Maine, and Nevada, showed a tendency to aid in the fund. The report asserted that state retirement systems have suffered with the last four years owing to the depression. It was reported further that Alaska has discontinued its system; and that of many attempts by legislatures to change the systems, but few have succeeded. Givens (611) estimated that present retirement systems care for only 60 percent of the nation's teachers.

Current Legislation

The Committee on Retirement Allowances of the National Education Association (625) found that in 1935 legislatures or professional organ-

izations in 32 states considered retirement provisions for aged or disabled teachers; that legislative proposals were advanced in 25 states during the first five months of the year as compared with 4 states in 1934; that publicity was accorded recommendations of survey commissions or preliminary drafts of retirement plans in 4 states; that 8 states proposed, for the first time, statewide retirement laws; that in 3 states action has been taken to create commissions for study; that attempts to remove constitutional restrictions were made in 2 states; that reorganization plans were in progress in 4 states; and that 18 states already having statewide laws were making amendments or additions thereto. In addition, two bills providing for retirement systems were definitely defeated, while one attempt to repeal the retirement system was defeated. In 30 states, sixty-seven bills were introduced, all relating to retirement systems. Of these, forty-nine were pending at the time of the report, twelve had been passed, and six had been defeated. These bills covered all phases of the retirement systems, such as membership, organization, administration, etc.

A proposed plan (644) submitted by the Illinois State Teachers Association Pension Committee provides definitely for a legal set-up embracing many of the fundamental principles recognized elsewhere.

R. R. Nelson (627), in a study of the new 1935 retirement law for California, found that teachers may make annual deposits to provide annuities in excess of the \$600, as provided by law for thirty years of service; that there is an annuity allowance provided by law upon retirement for disability prior to the completion of thirty years of service; that annuity deposits, plus interest, and the permanent fund (\$24 per year) will be paid to the estate or beneficiary upon death of teacher prior to retirement; that smaller annuities are paid to women than to men, due to larger salaries paid men. Changes in the California law were further explained by Staffebach (638) who pointed out that the state contributes 5 percent of the inheritance tax to the fund, the district paying \$12, and the teacher paying \$24. Teachers may retire after thirty years of service, fifteen of which must be in California. Teachers are not compelled to retire after thirty years of service, but in cases of inability to continue teaching after a service of only ten to fifteen years they may receive proportionate benefits. It is felt that the present law gives annuities at bargain prices and makes provisions for teachers who do not wish to retire after thirty years of service. The retirement law was amended in order to clarify the status of supply teachers (633, 640). They do not contribute to the fund if service is less than ten days and consequently receive no credit toward retirement. In addition, time spent on leave is counted toward retirement if pay is received and contributions to the fund are made. Service is computed by months, eight months being counted as one year. If the employee renders no service and receives no pay, he is not to contribute to the fund. Further changes were made regarding leaves of absence, contributions and deposits, and accumulation of service.

Cooper (601, 602) emphasized the need of a retirement plan based on sound business policy and good insurance practice and reviewed the fifteen principles set forth by the National Education Association's Retirement Committee of One Hundred in 1920. He stated further that the Texas voters on November 3, 1936, approved a constitutional amendment that enables the legislature to enact a retirement statute. A bill incorporating these principles will be introduced at the next session of the legislature. (See also a paragraph in Chapter XIV on retirement and pension laws.)

Attitude of Teachers

E. H. Nelson (626) found that teachers fall into two groups in their opinions regarding retirement: (a) those who associate retirement with physical and mental infirmities; and (b) those who seek retirement for travel, recreation, etc. The retirement committee of the National Education Association (625) noted that teachers are increasingly in favor of retirement systems, that state teachers associations are active in urging that legislatures appropriate the amounts now due, and that no ill-considered changes be made. The public in general is felt to be indifferent or unfavorable. On the whole, the general trend is in favor of pensions for old age and for pensions in general. Hamilton (613) stated that the teachers of South Carolina are strongly in favor of a retirement system.

Court Decisions

Hodgdon (615) enumerated 20 court decisions bearing on teacher tenure and retirement, indicating in the main that there is strong legal sentiment for the proper administration of teacher-tenure laws and that the rights of teachers have been generally upheld when the court rules. (The matter of tenure was discussed in the preceding chapter.) Lowery (622) found that amounts accepted as payments into an annuity fund should be computed upon salary actually received. In another report (623) he showed that the court held the resignation and subsequent reinstatement of a teacher to be a leave of absence and not classification as a new entrant on the records of the retirement fund.

Universities and Colleges

In 1934 Robbins (634) made a study of the scope and form of seven types of retirement plans now operating in colleges and universities. In the same year James (617) found that within the last sixteen years 23 percent of all colleges in the United States and Canada have adopted retirement plans. These colleges employ 47 percent of all college teachers in the two countries. Fifteen thousand teachers hold policies in the system with annuity payments of approximately \$17,500,000 and accumulated reserves of over \$31,000,000. James (618), in another article, stated that

of the 117 colleges that have contributory retirement plans 105 use the deferred annuity contracts of one company (Teachers Insurance and Annuity Association of America). The main features of this contract are as follows: (a) savings contract with interest rate guaranteed; (b) withdrawal of accumulations in lump sum not provided; (c) premiums may be increased and additional premiums paid; (d) policy holders equity not forfeited; (e) interest accretions continue on payments already made, if premiums are discontinued; (f) in case of death before annuity payments begin, full equity is paid beneficiary in any way chosen by policy holder; (g) policy holder chooses when annuity payments begin; and (h) policy holder may choose kind of annuity he receives.

Patterson (631) found that the Townsend Plan and the federal Social Security Act have aroused interest in retirement allowances. His belief is that university teachers should be more interested in retirement allowances than in immediate salaries, and that two types of plans should be considered: the self-insurance plan, and the straight-insurance plan.

Swan (642) in 1934 reported that only fifteen state universities in the United States have no retirement plan; that the plan of the Teachers Insurance and Annuity Association of America has been adopted by thirteen of these universities; that twelve states have their own plan; and that eleven states have a part-salary plan for part-time work.

Pritchett (632) in 1934 concluded that the Teachers Insurance and Annuity Association of America is doing effective work in solving the retirement problem for college teachers.

CHAPTER XIV

The Legal Status of Teachers

THIS SUBJECT has been treated in earlier numbers of the *Review of Educational Research* by Anderson (648), and Edwards (677). During the three-year period covered by the present *Review*, no comprehensive effort to explore the legal status of the teacher as a whole seems to have been made, but a considerable amount of fragmentary research and writing has been done. Some comments have already been made in other chapters of this issue on legal aspects of the topic there under discussion. The present chapter deals more systematically with legal studies.

Résumés of Legislation Affecting Teachers

Condensed accounts of newly enacted statutes affecting the status of teachers have appeared annually from three sources. Keesecker prepared mimeographed summaries of educational measures in Congress and in the state legislatures, epitomizing bills introduced as well as bills enacted (703, 705, 706) and issued his biennial summaries of school legislation, mentioning statutes affecting teachers (708:28-33, 709:33-37). The National Education Association (729, 730) issued briefer annual summaries, and also published an abstract of Cocking's study of recent trends in state school legislation (671), as well as a comprehensive table exhibiting in tabloid form existing provisions in the fifty-one states and territories regarding tenure, retirement, minimum salary, uniform contracts, and control of certification (734). The *Nation's Schools* carried annual articles on legislation affecting teachers, contributed by Carr (660) and Chambers (665). It is well that brief reviews of the yearly legislative grist were made available by three agencies; but candor compels the comment that none of the reports is as complete or as widely circulated as the significance of the subject deserves. The résumés by Keesecker came nearest to achieving comprehensiveness, but they suffered from extended delay in publication, as well as from the absence of critical and comparative comment upon the new statutes.

Teachers' Oath Laws

The most extensively publicized feature of the teacher's legal status was the enactment of statutes requiring teachers to subscribe to oaths of allegiance or similar affirmations in several states and in the District of Columbia. This fever reached its height in 1935, and precipitated a great deal of discussion and writing, some of which is characterized more by thermal potency than by candle-power. The carefully reasoned statements by such distinguished scholars in the social sciences as Beard (653), Becker (654), and Kilpatrick (711) are worthy to be classified as research

products in this highly significant and controversial area which does not lend itself readily to investigation by means of technics commonly called scientific. Factual surveys of the statutes in the several states were published by the American Civil Liberties Union (647), the American Federation of Teachers (715), and by the Research Division of the National Education Association (735). The latter found oaths of allegiance required by statute or state board regulation in twenty-one states and the District of Columbia in 1936, and released an analytical summary of these provisions, accompanied by copies of the full texts of the pertinent laws, as well as a copy of the resolutions opposing these laws and calling for the maintenance of academic freedom, adopted at the Portland convention of the National Education Association. More recently the American Association of University Professors prepared a pamphlet summarizing the teachers' oath situation in 1937, and seeking to clarify the issues involved, as well as to supply information of value to persons seeking the repeal of such statutes (646).

Discussions of constitutional and social aspects of the Massachusetts teachers oath act appeared in legal periodicals. Gardner and Post (690) prepared a painstaking and lengthy analysis of the issues involved in both the teachers' oath act and the act requiring the flag salute and pledge of allegiance by public school pupils, tracing the history of these issues from Colonial days, and ending with arguments against both of these pieces of legislation summed up in such piquant phrases as "the Constitution is not a device for bullying little children," nor is it "a device for suppressing people who disagree with us." Grinnell (692) contributed an interesting note on the effect of the teachers' oath law "on the meaning and sanction of an oath in the public estimation," deploring the multiplication and vulgarization of useless oath-taking for manifold purposes ranging upward from oaths administered by garage mechanic-magistrates as prerequisite to trivial contracts for automobile repairs. The history of teachers' oaths in Italy is briefly reviewed by Salvemini (745), the distinguished professor of history now exiled from his native land. The Fascist oath was imposed upon teachers in the lower schools by act of September 30, 1923, and extended to university professors by act of August 28, 1931, precipitating the resignations of many, including that of Signor Orlando, famed former prime minister, and the dismissal of eleven professors who refused either to take the oath or to resign.

Freedom of Teaching

The largest single study of freedom of teaching in the public schools is the monumental work by Beale (652), published as Part XII of the *Report of the Commission on Social Studies of the American Historical Association*. It contains a large number of scattered references to the statutes in various states providing for the dismissal of teachers for "dis-

loyalty," "criminal syndicalism," criticism of popular heroes, drinking, immorality, and irreligion; to laws forbidding the teaching of evolution, the teaching of "radicalism," and the advocacy of racial equality; and to statutes requiring the teaching of "Americanism," and the baleful effects of alcohol, narcotics, and tobacco. There is also some reference to judicial interpretations of teachers' tenure laws, and an inadequate one-page discussion of legal safeguards for freedom of teaching. Although the work has been criticized as representing a negative emphasis, assuming that American teachers are hamstrung by 1,000 external forces as well as by their own weaknesses and limitations, it should unquestionably be hailed as an important document affording a basis for the advance of the profession toward the dignity and liberty which should characterize teaching in a democratic society.

Thought-provoking articles on restrictions imposed on teachers by boards of education in backward localities, as well as by the force of perverted public opinion in small communities, had been published earlier by Weltzin (754) and Cooke (672). More recently DeVoto (676) contributed a penetrating fictional account of the hypothetical troubles of a young teacher in a small midwestern town, concluding somewhat weakly that it is well that the prevalent restrictions on teachers flourish. A convenient compilation of current opinion, containing excerpts from most of the works on academic freedom and teachers' oaths was edited by Johnsen (701). (See also a later section dealing with higher education.)

Certification Laws

Regier's doctoral dissertation (742) revealed evidence to sustain his conclusion that the certification laws and regulations in Kansas are not adequately enforced, and do not, as they are at present administered, insure the exclusion of teachers obviously ill-prepared for the work for which they are employed. Two studies of recent trends in the certification of secondary-school teachers have been made by Evertz (680) and Pease (739). Abstracts of the requirements for certification for teaching in high schools and junior colleges in most of the states were collected by Woellner and Wood (756). Two historical studies of certification in New York State have appeared: O'Donnell (737) on elementary teacher certification, and Sullivan (750) on the certification of teachers of special subjects. Ried (744) analyzed the certification laws of thirty-four states. A major present trend is toward the centralization of certificating authority in the hands of the chief state school officer, and toward the abolition of local certification. Another pronounced tendency leads to the minimizing of either state or local examinations, and the substitution of judgment based exclusively upon credentials, from teachers colleges or other institutions of higher education, submitted by the applicants. This is bringing about a gradual abolition of teachers examining boards, and transference of their

authority to a division of the staff of the chief state school officer. The status of these trends in 1936 is disclosed as one feature of Chambers' survey of state educational-administrative organization (666).

Hostetler (698) made a study of the causes for which the revocation of certificates is authorized in the several states. Cronin's study (674) of state relations to private elementary and secondary schools revealed that Nebraska requires all teachers in such schools to possess state teachers' certificates and to attend the institutes conducted by the county superintendents; and that three other states require all teachers of pupils within the compulsory school age to hold state certificates. Witherington (755) analyzed the laws and regulations adopted to provide for in-service training of teachers during the period from 1911 to 1933, with special emphasis upon the placement of responsibility for their administration. Cooke (673) compared the minimum standards of training for lawyers and teachers in the forty-eight states, made some interesting comments to support the assertion that standards should be expected to be higher for lawyers than for teachers, and concluded that the minimum requirements for both professions should be speedily raised in many states to conform to the recommendations of the American Bar Association and the regional and state educational accrediting associations.

The Teacher's Contract

Anderson's annual contributions to the *Yearbooks of School Law* (649, 650, 651) were dependable reviews of developments in the law of the teacher's contract. These summarize the decisions handed down by the highest courts in all states during the respective years covered. A study of the same subject, limited to the state of New York, but including recent statutes as well as judicial decisions, is the master's thesis by Minowitz (722). Current decisions illustrating elementary principles of the law of contracts as applied to the employment of teachers were reported by Chambers (662). Articles reviewing judicial decisions involving the dismissal of teachers were contributed by Jarvis (699) and Hall (693), the latter discussing cases of 1933-35 inclusive in three categories, illustrating respectively the common law right of dismissal, statutes authorizing dismissal, and remedies available to the wrongfully dismissed teacher.

Weisenfluh (753) described so-called "strikes" by school teachers in three Pennsylvania communities, precipitated by failure to pay teachers' salaries. He investigated the legal rights of the parties concerned, as well as the social implications and practical outcomes of these incidents. The National Education Association published two studies of contract forms (726, 732): the first showing that some attempt has been made to standardize the forms in at least twenty-three states, and that in nine states the use of the state-adopted form is mandatory; the second exhibiting the characteristics of 400 forms collected from forty-two states and Hawaii.

The Married Woman Teacher

Straitened employment conditions contributed to the spread of prejudice against the employment of married women, which frequently expressed itself in variously worded resolutions by local boards of education. At the same time there was a tendency within the profession to give more and more thoughtful consideration to the evidence that the fact of marriage in itself bears no adverse relation to professional competency. A study of the situation was published by Peters (740), and a pamphlet on its legal aspects was prepared by Keesecker (704). No state forbids the employment of married women by statute, but apparently the local school authorities in nearly all states may adopt policies looking toward the exclusion of married women from the teaching corps, so long as they do not violate any existing contract or contravene the tenure laws in the states having such statutes. In 1933 North Carolina enacted a statute specifying that "in the employment of teachers no rule shall be made or enforced on the ground of marriage or nonmarriage," and the Maryland State Board of Education has ruled that the dismissal of a woman teacher on account of her marriage is unlawful in that state.

In states having tenure statutes the courts have generally held that marriage alone is not a sufficient cause for the dismissal of a permanent teacher, even when the statute permits dismissals for specified causes and adds the phrase "or other good cause." The courts have almost uniformly declared that the marriage of a woman teacher cannot be comprehended within this phrase in immediate juxtaposition to such causes as incompetency, insubordination, immorality, or other misconduct. Jeffrey contributed a note on the relationship between the general rule that contracts in restraint of marriage are void and the common practice of inserting into teachers' contracts a stipulation that they shall be automatically terminated upon the marriage of the female party (700). Chambers (661) reported several recent judicial decisions, showing that there is a sharp division of judicial opinion on the issues involved, especially when no tenure statute is concerned.

Statutory Security for Teachers

Minimum-salary laws—The National Education Association found that twenty states have specific minimum salary standards, and that fourteen of these have in force statewide mandatory minimum-salary laws. Among these twenty states it was found that eleven first adopted this type of statute between 1915 and 1924, inclusive, and that only two have initiated legislation of this kind since 1924. In addition to an analysis of the various features of these acts, abstracts of the pertinent statutes in each of the twenty states are included in this report (724). A briefer analysis of the same data, showing the scope of the laws and the extent to which they recognize certain bases for variations in the amounts of minimum salaries,

was published by Davis (675). Merritt (721) studied the impact of economic depressions upon mandatory salary laws, and Fulkerson (683) published a discussion of the purposes and merits of such legislation.

Tenure laws—Teacher tenure was treated generally in Chapter XII. Scott's comprehensive study of teacher tenure (746) included data regarding its historical and legal basis. The National Education Association's *Handbook on Teacher Tenure* (728) reported that six states have or have had statutes providing for indefinite tenure after a probationary period for all public school teachers, and that six other states have similar statutes applicable only to city school districts above specified sizes. It is estimated that 23 percent of all teachers in the United States are now employed in states and cities where indefinite tenure may be attained after successful probationary service. The *Handbook* presented detailed analyses of the tenure statutes in five American states, and brief digests of existing provisions for the tenure of teachers in several European countries, Australian states, and Canadian provinces.

There have appeared three series of studies of current court decisions construing tenure laws. One of these was published by the National Education Association for its Committee on Tenure (723, 725). A second was the annual reviews appearing regularly in the *Yearbooks of School Law*, contributed by Lowery (716, 717) and Hodgdon (696, 697). A third was a series of short articles by Garber (684, 685, 686, 687). All these investigators found that the constitutionality of tenure acts seems no longer open to question, and, that with some exceptions the courts are generally inclined to appreciate the salutary intent and purpose which underlies these acts, and to rebuke occasional attempts to circumvent them. A considerable volume of litigation took place, especially since depression stringency tended to cause the abolition of positions, reductions in salaries, and other adjustments which were often on the borderline of violation of the tenure laws, depending upon what construction the courts might place upon them. It may be said that experience indicates that workable tenure statutes are not regarded unsympathetically by the courts, and that the obstacles to the extension of tenure systems are political rather than legal.

Harris (694) reviewed the history of tenure laws and decisions in California, exhibiting the clumsy but stubborn methods of evasion resorted to by recalcitrant schoolboards, and concluded that "the effective enforcement of the tenure system is in the main a teachers' problem," requiring "an educative campaign among parents and trustees, and a persistent prosecution of violations of the tenure law, necessitating an accumulation of defense funds to assist wrongfully dismissed teachers in obtaining complete judicial review."

Retirement and pension laws—Keesecker published a bulletin (710) analyzing the statutes providing for the retirement of teachers in the twenty-four states having statewide retirement systems in 1934, and a briefer epitomization of the status of statewide or local systems in each

state as of 1935 was included in Chambers' survey of state educational-administrative organization (666). In the same year McKinley made his study of certain state systems (720). The progress of retirement legislation continued. The enactment of statewide laws in New Mexico, Kentucky, and Louisiana occurred during the triennium. Litigated controversies involving interpretations of retirement laws were touched upon by Lowery (716, 717) and Hodgdon (696). More detailed discussion of these laws, by state, was given in Chapter XIII.

Applicability of workmen's compensation laws to school employees—The National Education Association published digests of fifty court decisions involving teachers and other school employees (727), and Chambers contributed an article reviewing certain cases involving injuries to teachers while on the way to school (669). The courts seem inclined to construe the compensation laws liberally in favor of teachers, and to hold injuries *en route* compensable if it is shown that the teacher was exercising control over pupils or carrying school papers which must be necessarily worked upon at home, at the time of the accident.

Authority and Liability of Teachers and School Officers

The legal authority of the public school teacher in relation to punishment of pupils was outlined by Stewart (749), and examined in detail in the state of Ohio by Kloak (712), who also described the extent of the teacher's authority to enforce rules, maintain discipline, and control school children when not actually in classes. Poe (741) studied the liability for injuries to children in the schools. According to a universal principle of the law of torts, a teacher is personally liable if his negligence causes injury to a pupil as its proximate result. But such cases are rare, and even when they do occur the teacher's economic status often makes it impracticable to sue him personally because he has not sufficient assets with which to satisfy a judgment. The question of the responsibility for defaming the character of a teacher was discussed by Lentz (714), who quoted the California statutes defining civil libel and slander and reviewed three court decisions in that state regarding the publication of derogatory statements concerning teachers, concluding that a false and unprivileged statement actually tended to damage the reputation of the teacher is actionable, but that communications from one school officer to another or from interested groups of citizens to the school authorities are privileged unless proved to have been actuated by malice.

Legal Status of Administrative Officers

A comprehensive study of the statutes and administrative regulations governing the status of the county superintendent in thirty-nine states was published by Newsom (736), and Carlile (658) wrote on the same subject for the state of Indiana at a more recent date. Seyfried (747) explored

the rights and obligations of superintendents in California under their contracts of employment. Chambers (667) reviewed two Kentucky decisions involving the relation of local superintendents to their boards of education under the Kentucky school code of 1934, which contains an admirable definition of the powers and duties of the superintendent, and seems to be the first statute in any state which unmistakably confers a definite sphere of authority upon the superintendent and protects him to a certain extent from an officious board which may seek to usurp his powers and take over his administrative duties.

Legal Status of the Teacher in Higher Education

Elliott and others (679:160-85) included in their book on the control of higher education a chapter on the relation of the governing board to the faculty, consisting chiefly of descriptions of various practices in the appointment of teachers and the extent to which they are consulted in the formulation of educational policies in institutions of higher learning. In their later work on judicial decisions affecting higher education, Elliott and Chambers (678:68-91) reviewed all the important litigated controversies regarding the president and faculty members, including the inception and termination of the contract of employment, and such ancillary matters as salaries, workmen's compensation and extra-mural activities of professors.

Chambers (663) earlier investigated cases concerning the dismissal of teachers in state normal schools and state teachers colleges, and Beu (655) more recently published a study containing a brief summary of the statutes affecting the status of teachers in publicly supported normal schools and teachers colleges in the territory of the North Central Association.

The American Association of University Professors, through its Committee on Freedom of Speech and other committees on occasion, investigated cases of alleged abridgment of the civil rights of teachers, and published reasoned discussions of the perennially significant subject of academic freedom (646, 659).

Importance and Need of Legal Research

A convincing brief statement of what the teacher needs to know about the legal rights of pupils and parents, as well as the teacher's own rights and responsibilities, and why it is essential that the teacher should be conversant with these matters in order to render best service in the advancement of education, was written by Keesecker (707). The need for extensive studies of the statutes and judicial decisions affecting nepotism, religious prejudice, and other untoward influences in the selection of teachers, as well as tenure and retirement laws and other elements affecting their security, was pointed out by Chambers (664).

Space does not permit a catalog of the numerous avenues along which research on the legal status of the teacher ought constantly to advance.

- Perhaps the greatest single need is for a continuing synthesis of the current situation, technically accurate from the standpoint of legal scholarship and at the same time written with sufficient simplicity and interest to compel the attention of the average teacher, and to clinch the point that no factor in American life has greater potential significance than the developing status of the teacher in law and in practice.

CHAPTER XV

Teachers Associations, Organizations, and Unions

THE *Educational Directory* (766) for 1936 listed 444 national and sectional educational associations; 121 state educational associations; 53 foundations and boards established for educational purposes; 30 educational organizations and educational boards established by religious groups, the majority of which are national in scope; 37 international educational associations and foundations; 49 divisions of the National Congress of Parents and Teachers in addition to the Congress itself; and 48 state library associations. The total 782 organizations would be greatly increased if all local and county organizations, of which no list is available, were added to the list.

Comparable figures from the educational directories of 1913 (764) and 1921 (765) are as follows, the first figure in each case being for 1913 and the second for 1921:

National and sectional educational associations 110 and 275; state educational associations 135 and (including some local) 209; foundations and boards 9 and 21; educational associations established by religious groups 35 and 31; international educational associations 28 and 13; and divisions of the National Congress of Parents and Teachers 33* and 40.

The total memberships of the National Education Association on January 1 of the last four years were 207,418 for 1933; 189,173 for 1934; 187,645 for 1935; and 190,944 for 1936 (757, 758, 759). For the four years in the same order the memberships in state associations were 682,607; 652,338; 689,721; and 723,601 (757, 758, 759). Both sets of totals show the effect of the depression and each shows a current upward trend. The state associations have recovered more rapidly. The membership in the national organization on January 1, 1936, included 21 percent of the 908,488 teachers in the United States and territories, while the total membership in the state organizations on the same date included 83 percent. By January 1, 1936, the life membership in the National Education Association had risen to 5,172 (759).

Robinson (763) made a critical analysis of the American Federation of Teachers, its history, its aims, its work during and since the depression. At the time of its organization in 1916 the Federation had about 2,800 members in its eight locals. By 1920, it had 140 locals and 12,000 members. During the period 1921-27, the organization experienced a decline but by January 1934, had rebuilt its membership to 9,634 and the number of locals to 75. According to the *New Republic*, its membership in 1936 was 35,000 (762).

*Mothers' Congress.

The National Education Association (760) compiled a list of deliberative committees in education concerned with various aspects of education on a national scale. This list is extensive and is significant in indicating the dynamic character of educational work at the present time. The Educational Policies Commission is continuing this list (761).

Needed Research

The field of educational organizations offers a rich area for research. Profitable studies could be made of the origins and personnel of educational organizations. Comparisons of their aims, activities, and achievements, would likewise be valuable. A series of such studies during the next three years, comparable to the one by Robinson (763), reported for numerous organizations in readily available periodicals, would be filling a real need in American education.

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SCHOOL ORGANIZATION

(Literature reviewed from July 1, 1934 to July 1, 1937)

Prepared by the Committee on School Organization: Nickolaus L. Engelhardt, Nelson B. Henry, John Dale Russell, Jesse B. Sears, and William C. Reavis, *Chairman*; with the cooperation of George R. Champlin, George H. Geyer, Paul W. Lange, J. D. Logsdon, Harold W. McCormick, Nolan D. Pulliam, Carroll B. Quaintance, William M. Shanner, and James C. Shelburne.

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FOREWORD

THE COMMITTEE which prepared this issue of the *Review* have conceived their task in broad and stimulating terms. This is evident both in the area covered by the report, and in the type of material included.

The subject *school organization* is concerned not alone with a description of the existing framework of administrative control, but also with the interaction of this framework with detailed educational practices so as to facilitate the realization of the highest educational goals. The treatment in this issue therefore deals not only with the modal and variant configurations of organizational units, but also with the supporting practices which are indigenous to these structures. The various forms are viewed, with temporal perspective, as morphological responses to varying social and educational needs, and as adaptations which, always imperfect, invite continued appraisal and stand subject to discontinuance under the force of new concepts which seem to promise the next higher degree of adjustment, either to immediate conditions or to ultimate ends.

School organization is treated with respect to (a) horizontal divisions (territorial, or political units), (b) vertical divisions (structural units), and (c) internal practices (functional phases of managerial and instructional activities within each of the types of units). Discussion of the third aspect leads to some overlapping with other numbers of the *Review*. This however is not to be regarded as wholly undesirable; from the standpoint of the user it is more satisfactory to have a topic broadly treated in a single source than to have the treatment restricted because of more or less arbitrary considerations on the part of the producer. Also the reader will probably be more likely to pursue a topic into other issues that deal more fully with it if the topic has been opened up for him, its possibilities suggested, and his interest aroused.

The treatment in this issue is notable for the extent to which it includes, interwoven with Committee interpretation, publications other than those which are strictly reports of quantitative facts. In thus conceiving and executing their report, the members of the Committee have undoubtedly prepared a manuscript which is more dynamic, both for the field practitioner and for the research worker. The report does not omit available research; it simply adds point to what might otherwise be a mechanical presentation.

The present issue carries its own index. This issue index is an innovation, undertaken experimentally. Up to this time only the December issue has carried an index—which was for the entire volume. Expressions concerning the value of an index in each issue will be welcomed by the Editorial Board.

DOUGLAS E. SCATES,
Chairman of the Editorial Board.

INTRODUCTION

THIS ISSUE of the *Review of Educational Research* presents a synopsis and interpretation of the contributions in the field of school organization from July 1, 1934, to July 1, 1937. Many of the studies reported are recognized by the Editorial Committee as interpretations of research rather than research. In citing and reviewing such materials the Committee consider that the presentation of the interpretations may possess fully as much value to the reader as would the summarization of the actual research. The issue should, therefore, be appraised as a summary of investigations and interpretations in school organization, for the period under review.

The organization of the content of this issue varies only slightly from that of the last review in 1934. The variation is caused primarily by modifications in school organization to meet problems rendered acute by the depression. These problems pertain chiefly to children of preschool age, and to young people and adults whose education had been terminated before the completion of the public school course. The sections dealing with the problems enumerated, therefore, include some earlier literature, and cover a longer period than that to which the issue as a whole is restricted.

WILLIAM C. REAVIS, *Chairman,*
Committee on School Organization.

CHAPTER I

Territorial Units

A CENSUS OF TERRITORIAL UNITS of school organization reveals 127,000 school districts in the United States. Of this number about 109,000 are "common school" districts; 6,000 are town or township units; 7,000 are city and independent districts, many being organized under special charters from the state legislatures; 2,500 are union or consolidated districts; 1,300 are separate high-school districts; 845 are county units; and 160 are county districts for high-school purposes only (2). That many of these districts are too small to constitute adequate units of school administration and support is evidenced by the fact that in 1930, more than 148,700 of the 207,039 rural schools were of the one-teacher type. Fewer than 10 percent had as many as 240 pupils and six teachers; more than half of all the public high schools had fewer than 100 pupils and employed fewer than six teachers.

Local Districts

In the twenty-six states organized on the basis of common school districts, or independent local districts, the average administrative unit has only 18 square miles of territory and five teaching positions (2).

Obviously, the reorganization of school units is one of the major problems in education today. This generalization is supported by the study of Briscoe (1), who found that general control was most adequately provided in units employing 200 or more teachers. Units of 70-80 teachers provided satisfactory general control by using only a comparatively small percent of their current expense; units of 40-50 teachers showed a marked increase in the percent of current expense for adequate general control. In units of 30 teachers or less the cost for these services became prohibitive. Farnsworth (4) found that in Utah 11 districts of 40 teachers or less were spending more than 8 percent of their current expense for general control.

Effective opposition has prevented consolidation of rural-school districts in Kansas. Sheffer (6) developed technics and procedures for the formation of "cooperative school areas" in 64 of the 105 counties of the state. He has shown that by making maximum use of the present small graded schools to accommodate the pupils from one-room schools within a radius of five miles at least 283 cooperative school areas could be organized, thereby abolishing 669 one-room schools without the addition of a single new classroom. This would bring 7,162 farm children (11 percent of those in the areas) into the graded schools. A reduction of \$328,336 in school costs would be effected by this plan. By the addition of a few extra classrooms, 291 cooperative areas could be formed affecting 15.6 percent of the pupils now attending one-room schools. Sheffer hoped to overcome the opposition to consolidation by permitting any cooperating school district to return to its former organization if it became dissatisfied.

Intermediary Units between District and County

No evidence has been reported to the knowledge of the writer during the three-year period under consideration of any significant change in the status of the town, community, and township units of school organization. It is apparent that these intermediate units now represent an outmoded stage in the transition of territorial reorganization between the district and the county, and that they are now generally considered as offering relatively few advantages over the district and virtually none of the real advantages of the county.

County Units

Little (5) examined surveys of 223 counties in 15 states in an attempt to determine the probable effect of reorganization on school costs. The number of teaching units proposed was based upon the average practices in schools of various sizes; the amount of transportation required was estimated from the average per-pupil costs of transportation in each state; the cost of instructional service was estimated as the state average cost per teaching unit. Allowance was made for higher costs in the high schools. The amount of decrease in cost resulting from fewer required teachers was balanced against the increased cost of additional transportation to determine whether or not any economies would result from consolidation of districts. It was found that the reorganization of local school attendance units, measured in weighted elementary classroom units or their equivalent, would decrease costs in 213 counties and increase costs in 10 counties. The school costs in these counties are now 1.36 times as much as they would be if no elementary school had an average daily attendance of less than 290 pupils and no high school had an average daily attendance of less than 726 pupils.

Three factors seem to affect the variation in costs resulting from consolidation: (a) the amount of consolidation which previous reorganization, natural barriers, and community prejudice and other limiting factors will permit; (b) the density of population as determined by the number of farm and village children per 10,000 acres of farm land; and (c) the number of farm and village children per school. Little has developed a formula for predicting consolidation costs which is applicable "in general cases but not with exactitude for specific localities."

Three of the criteria set up by Sheffer (6) in his study of cooperative school areas were: (a) to retain the present district organization; (b) to leave the way open for a return to the one-teacher districts; and (c) to make consolidation legally possible. These are indicative of the feeling of the rural people in Kansas with respect to their local schools and the rural life. Euler (3) studied the possibilities of county unification in Kansas. His data were selected primarily from 317 interviews conducted on a field trip through the state. He concluded that, while county unification is economically and educationally desirable, it must be accomplished by overcoming ideological obstructions. "The needed change is being re-

tarded not so much by economic forces as by concomitant factors which are socio-psychological in nature." These, he believed, can best be overcome through an adult education program similar to that conducted by the Kansas State Teachers Association which was instrumental in defeating a constitutional amendment for tax limitation in 1932. He based his faith in such programs upon the results that have been obtained through similar programs in California and elsewhere.

State as a Unit for Support

Evidence in support of a larger unit than the county is on the increase. For example, the state of Utah which changed from the district to the county unit in 1915 appears to be approaching a change which may make the state the unit, at least for support. Utah now has only 40 school districts. Twenty-four of these districts are coterminous with counties, five counties are divided into two or more units, and five cities of the first and second class are organized as independent districts. However, the variation in the resources of these districts is so great that the state faces a critical problem of equalization. Some districts have from seven to nine times as much wealth per pupil as have other districts. The range between districts, with respect to per capita costs per pupil in average daily attendance, is from \$24.45 to \$63.37. Farnsworth (4), in his study of consolidation, presented the advantages and disadvantages of redistricting into six, seven, nine, eleven, or thirteen units, as had been proposed to remedy the geographical and economic limitations of the present organization. He proposed that a commission be created by the legislature to prepare a plan whereby the state will support a minimum program which may be augmented by the district raising additional funds from its local resources. Tentative estimates of the cost to the state for such a program range from \$58 to \$62 per pupil in average daily attendance. The fundamental problem in Utah is one of state equalization. Redistricting is also necessary in order to create better geographical attendance areas and to facilitate equalization of financial resources. Eleven of the present school districts are spending more than 8 percent of their current expense for general control. Farnsworth further recommended that state equalization be supplemented by more rigid supervision over the local leadership in an attempt to insure higher standards.

Strayer (7) listed, in the summary of his study on centralizing tendencies, the following principles to be followed by states with respect to the administrative units of their schools:

1. The state should guarantee sufficient support for local school systems to make an acceptable foundation program of education available throughout its entire area.
2. The state's program for financing schools should be in the nature of a minimum program in order to preserve local initiative and opportunity for experimentation. The localities should be permitted and encouraged to provide at their own expense for a more generous educational program than that paid for by the state.
3. The state department of education should be given legislative authority in regard to the minimum scope and organization of local school systems. No state

should permit the continuance of inadequately organized local school units when this situation can be remedied by reorganization.

4. The state department of education should provide leadership in the reorganization of small and inefficient units of administration into units large enough to employ competent administrators and supervisors.

Special Units

The problem studied by White (9) in Wyoming was in many respects similar to that faced by Farnsworth in Utah. However, Utah has only 40 school districts whereas Wyoming has 385. The ratio of disparity between the wealthiest and the poorest district in Wyoming is calculated to be 206 to 1. There is no relationship between the educational need and the ability to support an educational program.

Six criteria were set up by White for redistricting Wyoming: (a) areas should be geographical unities; (b) they should be large enough to provide satisfactory educational opportunities; (c) they should be of sufficient size to insure constructive local initiative; (d) areas should be large enough to justify adequate administrative and supervisory staffs; (e) they should have adequate financial resources; and (f) they should have unity of organization and provide for centralization of authority. Five criteria were set up to guide the regional boards in forming attendance units within the administrative units: (a) the unit should be as nearly as possible a community; (b) it should offer first-class educational opportunities; (c) units should be determined by the topography and the transportation facilities; (d) racial, social, and economic factors should be considered; and (e) units should be established with the most complete information obtainable and with a view to the future development.

Under White's proposals inequalities in the assessed valuation per weighted teaching unit would be reduced from 1 to 130 to 1 to 3; the differences in the assessed valuation per pupil would represent a ratio not greater than 1 to 2. A five-mill levy, in addition to the present state and county aids, would sufficiently support the minimum program as defined by the equalization rules and regulations in all the proposed regional districts, maintain a defensible median program in all but three districts, and provide adequate administrative and supervisory services.

In view of the great interest in the reorganization of school units, and the many demands that have been made upon the United States Office of Education for information and advisory service, the Commissioner of Education called a conference in June 1935 to consider the administrative phases of the subject and to formulate acceptable principles and guides to reorganization practices which have been successful. The results of this conference have been edited by Cook (2) under four main headings: "Satisfactory Local School Units"; "Relationship Between Satisfactory School Units and School Finance"; "Procedures and Techniques in the Reorganization of Administrative Units"; and "Legislation to Facilitate Reorganization." Two appendixes, "Legal Principles and Examples of

- "Legislative Practice," and "Survey Findings Regarding School Administrative Units," and a bibliography are included.

The Office of Education (8) issued in January 1936 a circular containing suggested procedures and forms for collecting, organizing, and analyzing data; selecting and adopting standards for school reorganization; planning the reorganization of schools and school districts; projecting a school building program for the reorganized schools; and planning and estimating the cost of the proposed educational program.

CHAPTER II

Structural Organization

THE LITERATURE OF SCHOOL ADMINISTRATION reveals no fundamental modifications of the structural pattern of the American public school system during the past three years which were not characterized in a previous volume of the *Review of Educational Research* (58). The vertical organization of the educational program reveals a continued tendency to introduce innovations in administrative and instructional procedures within the traditional tripartite scheme of organization, with relatively greater experimentation in structural organization in the secondary and higher units than in the lower schools (12). Dougherty and others (27) noted the increasing emphasis upon child study as the basis of organization of the school program, although a considerable majority of the school systems in all parts of the country adhere to the eight-grade or eight-grade plus kindergarten plan for the elementary-school unit.

There is a scarcity of research recorded bearing specifically upon fundamental concepts underlying the structural organization of the school system, the numerous discussions of organization consisting chiefly of interpretations of emerging social changes and their educational implications. The significant suggestion of Wilkins and others (74) that existing plans of school organization are only partly in harmony with results of studies of growth-demands of the pupil at different stages of school progress may lead to a reconsideration of certain proposals which are based chiefly upon administrative or sociological considerations.

Extension of Services

The literature of the period covered by the present review shows no striking departures from the trends indicated in the last volume on school organization (58). There is evidence, however, of increased activity both in preschool training and in the extension of opportunities for institutional training for advanced students and for adults.

Nursery schools—Davis (26) reported an increase of 40 percent in the number of regularly organized nursery schools from 1932 to 1936. The statistical reports of Anderson (10) and Kelley (43) indicated that during the years from 1933 to 1936 there were more than 2,000 emergency nursery schools operating under the supervision of public school officials. McNeill (47), Young (76), and Montague (51) described limited experimental undertakings on behalf of physically handicapped children of nursery school age. According to Davis (25), the nursery school movement is to some extent retarded by legal obstacles to financial support of such classes as a part of the public school program. A dependable evaluation of nursery school training awaits the completion of significant researches in this field. Stoddard (63) summarized the pros and cons of nursery school training in terms of expert opinion and observation.

• *Kindergartens*—There has been no material change in the status of kindergartens since the last review of research in school organization (58). Occasional reports of efforts to measure the results of kindergarten training, such as (54) and (70), indicate favorable outcomes with respect to progress in later school work.

Lateral extensions—Continued progress in adapting the organization of instructional programs to the needs of atypical pupils is evidenced by the numerous reports on special schools and classes. Martens (49) reported the development along these lines since 1930. Evans (31) and M. L. Ingram (40) noted improved facilities and procedures for the education of crippled children. Wallin (73) reported the provisions for fresh-air classes during the depression. Coville (23), Hershey (35), and C. P. Ingram (39) described and evaluated plans for the instruction of blind children. Cornell (22) and Coxe (24) reported plans for improvement in the instructional opportunities for retarded and gifted children in New York state. Similar reports are provided with respect to special training of backward children in the schools of Connecticut (20) and Pennsylvania (57). The value of an activity program for mental defectives was explained by Athens (11). Mecker (50) reported the encouraging results of an experiment with prevocational classes for retarded high-school pupils. An experimental high school has been provided by the board of education in New York City for gifted pupils in the arts and music (53). Tildsley (67) proposed a system of separate secondary schools for the gifted, the normal, and the backward high-school pupils. Thompson (65) presented an interesting account of the expansion of the elementary and secondary-school organization in Jersey City to provide for an adult education program, including special training for the foreign-born, and extended facilities for various classes of exceptional children.

Shear (59) described the experiment in adult education conducted at the DeWitt Clinton High School in New York City. Future developments in adult education as an extension of the public school program were forecast by Bristow (16) and Bryson (17). Hamlin (33) showed the advantages of a closer coordination of extension programs in agriculture and home economics with the rural public school system. Most significant in its implications for the lateral extension of the American system of education in its entirety was Judd's declaration (42) of the need of a "closer articulation of our academic institutions with the institutions of the outside world." Specifically, he urged the cooperative endeavor of professional and lay groups in the interests of a more efficient organization of the educational system, and a more direct attempt on the part of educational institutions to serve the intellectual needs of the adult population as well as those of the children.

See also *junior colleges* in the following section.

Reorganization of Structural Units

Reorganization of elementary schools—Functional changes between the traditional divisions of the American school system have progressed along

the lines described in the earlier reports on school organization. There is continued experimentation in the interests of better articulation of kindergarten and primary programs of instruction, as explained by Morphy (52). Veverka (71) described the junior school organization for pupils below Grade IV in the Los Angeles schools. The elementary-school unit remains as previously defined in terms eight, seven, or six years of institutional training in about two-thirds of the public school systems. The upper limit of the elementary-school division is commonly determined by local school authorities in terms of their acceptance of the newer definitions of secondary education or their opportunities for reorganization of the secondary-school program. Trends in secondary-school reorganization are described in the following section.

Reorganization of secondary schools—The traditional plan of organization with its four-year high schools and a system of seven-, eight-, and nine-year elementary schools is gradually being superseded by various types of reorganized schools. A descriptive and statistical summary of the development of reorganized secondary schools as reported by the United States Office of Education (69) in its biennial report for 1933-34 indicates the numerous variations that exist. These variations are shown below.

<i>Junior High School</i>	<i>Junior-Senior High School</i>	<i>Senior High School</i>
2 year	5 year combinations	2 year
3 year	6 year combinations	3 year
4 year	7 year combinations	4 year

According to the *Biennial Survey* (69), approximately 71.4 percent of the high schools in 1934 were of the regular four-year type, while 28.6 percent were of the reorganized type. The reorganized secondary type has increased from 11.1 percent of the total number in 1922 to 28.6 percent of the total in 1934. The increase has been consistent through the intervening years, there being an increase of one-tenth in the number of reorganized schools recorded between 1930 and 1934.

Sixty percent of the reorganized schools in 1934 were reported as junior-senior types, nearly 30 percent as separate junior high schools, and a little more than 10 percent as senior high schools.

Taylor (64) reported that the six-year secondary school is to be found in every state of the Union with the exception of Georgia and Louisiana. He also stated that 71 percent of all six-year secondary schools are located in communities with a population of 2,500 or less, and only 3 percent are located in communities of 30,000 or over.

The *Biennial Survey* (69) indicated that 48.8 percent of all public high-school pupils in 1934 were enrolled in reorganized schools, and that nearly 30 percent of these were in separate junior or senior high schools. More recent reports, however, indicate that among the reorganized schools the greater gains in enrolment have been reported by those of the junior-senior type.

That the youth of the nation in increasing numbers are availing themselves of opportunities for secondary education is indicated by a 25.8 percent

gain between 1930 and 1934 in the reported enrolment in secondary schools. Reorganization is undoubtedly an important factor in the growth of secondary education, yet it does not account entirely for the large increase in the number of pupils in the last four years of the secondary schools. This number has virtually doubled with each decade since 1890.

Social and economic forces have compelled the schools to retain a larger number of students for longer periods of time. With this increase of enrolment at the secondary level, there has developed a corresponding need for a sound program for the development of secondary education. French (32) and Hutchins (38) noted the undesirability of a selective public secondary school in a democratic society and declared that this social need requires the lengthening of our secondary-school period so as to include Grades XIII and XIV, the recognized terminal point of general education. Not only is there a need for lengthening the "common school" period, but our secondary-school program, according to Briggs (15), must include provisions for boys and girls who are outside of the formal school and the young men and women who have advanced beyond the program of the secondary school.

What the policy of secondary education should be regarding such youth can be determined wisely only if a positive and basically sound position has been taken on fundamental matters. Such a policy, reported the Committee on the Orientation of Secondary Education (14), must be concerned with the admission of all youth, the period for which each is to be retained, the basic purpose for which he is accepted and educated, the kind of curriculum that should be offered, the scope that the new education should embrace, and the articulation of all units of the school system. The Committee (13) recognized that for practical purposes an educational system should be divided into units of organization, and maintained that such units can be logically determined and effectively planned only when there is recognition of the functions that are of peculiar emphasis in each division. Agreement on the peculiar responsibilities of each administrative unit is necessary in preparing a real program of articulation.

There is general agreement among public school administrators that the articulation of the units of American education is one of the most urgent problems of today. Kelly (44), H. L. Smith (61), Briggs (15), and Koos (45) repeatedly emphasized the need of bringing administrative practices into line with sound policy so that the school will approximate as far as possible the continuity and unit implied in the basic principle that education should be a gradual, continuous, unitary process.

That pupils enrolled in reorganized schools tend to be consistently superior to those enrolled in the 8-4 type has not been conclusively proved. H. P. Smith (60) added to the evidence favoring reorganized schools in his report of a study of the relative efficiency of junior high-school pupils as compared with those trained in the conventional eight-grade type of school.

Conner (21) reported an experiment with the 6-5 type of organization and described its advantages over the 7-4 type in an eleven-grade system.

The 6-4-4 plan of organization has been introduced in several communities where one institution comprising Grades XI to XIV, inclusive, is reasonably accessible to the whole area to be served. Advantages claimed for this type of organization include greater continuity in the educational activities of children, fewer inducements to discontinue education at the end of Grade XII, fewer problems of articulation, and a much greater utilization of the resources of the whole institution. In discussing the desirable types of junior college organization, Koos (45) considered the organizational relations of six types to the senior college years above and to the high-school years below. He concluded that it is more reasonable to urge a rearrangement of organization that achieves a simpler succession of units in the American system of education like that represented in the 6-4-4 plan. This new type of vertical integration brings a better junior, or high-school unit, fosters continuity of curriculum, makes for economy of time, encourages a continuous and consistent program of guidance, achieves a stronger upper unit through eliminating the short senior high school and the short two-year junior college, and helps materially in clarifying the issue of educational organization in this country.

Junior colleges—The movement for the upward extension of the secondary school to include the first two years of college is unabated. It is usually conceded that the period of general education can be completed by the end of the traditional sophomore college year and that the first two years of college are in reality secondary in character. Technological displacement of labor makes it difficult for immature workers to get jobs. The rapid advance of science and the growing intricacies of social and economic relationships require a longer period of schooling in order to meet the demands of citizenship in a democratic society and to make advantageous use of the increased leisure which a machine age is forcing upon the youth of our country. To meet this demand, communities are extending educational opportunities vertically as well as horizontally.

Eells (29) reported that the number of junior colleges increased 27 percent and the enrolment 142 percent from 1928 to 1936. Of the 519 junior colleges listed as of December 1935, it was noted that 41 percent were publicly controlled and 59 percent were privately controlled. The total enrolment for the same period was 122,514, of which 67 percent were registered in public junior colleges. Increased enrolments were found in the publicly controlled junior colleges in 20 states and decreased enrolments in 16, the net increase over the previous year being 10.5 percent. The largest increase in enrolment in publicly controlled institutions occurred in Illinois, due largely to the establishment of three municipal junior colleges in Chicago. The most striking increase during the period covered by Eells' report was in the private junior colleges, the net increase being 6,656, or 20.2 percent.

California continues to lead the nation in total number of junior colleges, the number reported being 55. There are 43 junior colleges in Texas and 37 in Iowa. Publicly controlled junior colleges are found in thirty-three

states, those under private auspices in forty-two states. In 1936 there were 106 institutions reported with enrolments exceeding 300, and 337 junior colleges with enrolments less than 200 students.

According to Peik (56) the junior college is a logical step in the ultimate democratization of the entire range of general education. A closer articulation between the high school and the junior college will tend to erase the traditional line of demarcation between them.

Zook (77) urged the interdependence of all educational institutions in the interest of students. The various divisions are, after all, engaged in a great cooperative enterprise where the interests of each are plainly the concern of all. The most elaborate structure is futile and superfluous if it does not facilitate well-defined functions that coordinate with the whole.

Kelly (44) and Harbeson (34) considered the junior college as distinctly a community institution which finds its service in meeting the needs of the community. Such an institution must be intimately related to the high school in its program, must be sincerely hospitable to vocational education, must take the lead in enriching the leisure time of all the young people in the community, and must serve as the center of an adult education program.

Engel (30), Staffebach (62), and Wahlquist (72) reported the growth and status of the junior college movement in Kansas, California, and Utah, respectively. It is evident from their reports that the junior college movement is confronted with a variety of problems that cry for solution. One of its biggest problems is to define itself and to achieve an appropriate prestige. In listing twenty-two problems in junior college education, Carpenter (18) indicated that this institution has not yet reached a status of dignity in secondary education.

Reorganization of higher institutions—Readjustments in the programs of the higher schools are continuously in progress in both public and private institutions. Current innovations are in part the reflection of developing concepts, as described by Judd (41), and partly the result of efforts to solve the more immediate academic or professional problems or to anticipate the emerging social problems characterized in such writings as Coffman (19), Zook (78), Hutchins (37), and Ogburn (55). The general character of the organization for advanced education in its present stage of development is adequately described by Thwing (66), Marsh (48), and Wills (75). How the problem of duplication is being attacked in various quarters has been conveniently summarized by McNeely (46). Present interest attaches particularly to such departures from traditional practice in relation to collegiate or post-collegiate study as the independent study plan at the University of Minnesota (68), as the recognition of the restrictive influence of research requirement for the Master's degree underlying the reorganized program at Yale (36), or Edwards' proposal (28) of the degree of Doctor of Arts instead of the Doctor of Philosophy for students not interested in research as a profession.

CHAPTER III

Functional Organization

A. ELEMENTARY SCHOOL

THIS SECTION pertains to the size of learning groups, ability grouping, social grouping, and organization for administration. Brief reference is also made to recent books treating the problems of elementary education. Other problems which are closely related to functional organization of the elementary school are treated in earlier issues of the *Review of Educational Research* as follows: April 1936—School Attendance, School Progress, Guidance and Counseling, Extra-Curriculum Activities, Educational Adjustment, Special Schools and Classes; June 1936—General Methods of Teaching and Supervision and Adjustments; April 1937—The Activity Curriculum. These issues should be consulted in any consideration of the problems of functional organization.

Size of Learning Groups

Babour (81) drew the conclusion, after studying literature on class size, that it is impossible to reach a decision as to the optimum teaching load and class size. It was found that when teaching technics are adapted to large class instruction, class size can be increased without measurable loss to the pupil—i. e., measurable in terms of standardized test scores. Also there is no definite evidence that pupils in large classes are handicapped in the development of proper attitudes, appreciations, etc. This, it should be noted, is a negative conclusion and does not present positive evidence that proper attitudes are developed in large classes as well as they are in small classes.

In an experiment carried on in classes in business training, Hand and Smith (100) found that the achievement in a small class, measured by an achievement test, was but little higher than in a class of 105 pupils. They concluded that the learning situation was not appreciably less favorable in the larger than in the smaller class. Much the same conclusion was reached by Dawe (92) in a study of the size of groups in the kindergarten. Here it was found that increasing the size of the group from 14 to 46 did not reduce the amount of a story which the children retained, although it did reduce the percent of participation in the discussion.

Eastburn (95) conducted an experiment on the relative efficiency of instruction in large and small classes on three ability levels. The only significant difference found, when measured by standardized tests, was in a group of eleventh-grade pupils of the middle ability level in English, who did better in a class of 60 than in a class of 30. Other differences in classes in history and English on higher and lower ability levels were not significant. This experiment seems to bear out the general conclusions reached in the two investigations previously described. It must be kept in mind, however, that these conclusions are all based on results as shown on standardized achievement tests.

°. Gates and Bond (99), in experimenting with reading disabilities, found that the majority of cases of poor reading could be helped very greatly through individual teaching by a competent teacher. While this conclusion was reached in regard to a special disability, it might be construed as evidence in favor of small classes.

There seems as yet to be no consensus of opinion regarding the optimum class size. With the adoption by many school systems of the so-called Activity Program with its stress on intangibles, decisive evidence on the optimum class size will depend in part on the development of reliable means of evaluation of the objectives of the school.

Classification of Pupils

Ability grouping—The problem of how to group children for instructional purposes is an extremely live one. The most complete treatment of ability grouping is found in the Thirty-fifth Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education (113). While no new experimentation was carried on in the preparation of the study, it does represent a careful and comprehensive consideration of the problem. Cornell (89), in summarizing the effects of ability grouping as determined from published studies, concluded that the philosophy behind the grouping and the accuracy with which the grouping is made for the purpose intended are more important than the grouping itself in any evaluation of results.

Out of his experience and experimentation in the Philadelphia schools, Boyer (83) made several suggestions regarding the administration of grouping in elementary schools. His most important findings show that ability grouping must be kept flexible in order to promote effective educational growth; it must provide social settings significant for both group and individual activity; and it should grow out of a recognition of individual differences. The most desirable bases for grouping are intelligence quotient and chronological age. Turney (129) recommended mental age and intelligence quotient as the best bases for grouping. Engelhardt (97) suggested the need for changes in the bases of promotion, the meaning of grade, system of marking, and other school practices, if ability grouping is to be successfully carried out.

Raup (120) and Alberty and Brim (79) disapproved of ability grouping on philosophic grounds. The former found in the practice three converging lines of development: "(a) A quest for bases of authority in uniformities supposed to exist in human relations; (b) a confusion of social intelligence with the wide acquisition of highly abstract subject matter; (c) the unwitting entrenchment, through educational practice, of unwholesome social procedures" which are inconsistent with the purposes of a democratic society. The other two authors found that ability grouping is at variance with the new spirit of creative education. While admitting that it has been useful in some ways the authors contended that new and more effective technics must be devised for dealing with the problem of differences in abilities.

Breidenstine (84) studied the achievement of pupils in differentiated and undifferentiated groups. The conclusion was reached, after experimentation in eleven schools with two groups of 787 matched pupils, that there was no significant difference in educational achievement, as measured by the New Stanford Achievement Tests, between the two types of groups. Segregation of pupils does not in itself materially improve achievement; curriculums and instructional measures are of crucial importance. This piece of research presented no new evidence but was a verification of previous research. Hartill (101) carried out an experiment to determine the value of ability grouping in New York City. The findings show no significant difference in the three traits selected for study among the 1,374 children taken as a whole, when grouped homogeneously and when grouped heterogeneously.

Closely related to the question of ability grouping is the question of the best place for the exceptional child of either high or low ability. Witty (132) recommended early identification and special provision for the gifted child. Hennessy (104) found that children in an "adjustment school," all of whom had high intelligence quotients, achieved more than children of the same I. Q. level in regular classes. Myers (110) recommended that the gifted child work in school with regular classes of normal children but that he be allowed to proceed at his own rate of speed. A similar recommendation was made by Patry (118) for children of low mental ability. Those interested in this phase of grouping should consult the summary by Heck (103) in a previous issue of the *Review of Educational Research*.

As stated at the beginning, an evaluation of grouping can be made only on the basis of the philosophy held. With the changing conception of education, new bases for evaluation are necessary. Conclusive evidence regarding the desirability of ability grouping has yet to be discovered.

Social grouping—Nearly all the contributors to the Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education which considered the question of grouping, used the term to imply ability grouping. However, in their section on the "Social Group," Chapin and Conway (88) used the term in a different sense, namely, to imply social grouping. A group, in this sense, has a certain cohesiveness since the individuals belonging to the group stand for certain objectives and find satisfaction in belonging to it. This type of group is dynamic in character and has some very important implications for the facilitation of the development of character and personality. Such groups are typified by informal clubs, and hobby organizations found in our schools. Two very interesting articles by Niegosh (114, 115), describing an experiment (116), considered this type of grouping in educational practice. Classes were composed of pupils who were socially adjusted to one another. In order to attain this end considerable movement from class to class took place during the first few weeks and to some extent throughout the year as the need arose. The following adjustment factors were used as a basis for grouping: chronological age, anatomical

- ° and physiological development, state of health, physical defects, mental endowment, special gifts and talents, emotional stability, past experience in school and home, home environment, and the total situation.

Social grouping requires very flexible methods of promotion; moreover, regrouping creates new problems. This bears out the earlier statement that educational progress must proceed along all fronts together. Two outstanding advantages of social grouping were listed by the author. First, the plan has a singleness of purpose which permits grouping according to the needs of the individual and does not require the maintenance of any pre-arranged plan. Also it releases the principal and teacher from the fear of competitive promotion percents. Second, this plan promotes a more healthful attitude towards disciplinary issues. Cases of discipline are treated in the light of illnesses and attempts are made to cure them. Among the difficulties encountered in the operation of the plan of grouping are those pertaining to (a) children's readjustment to various groups, (b) need for parental cooperation, (c) teacher cooperation, (d) course of study requirements, (e) official reports, (f) inadequate preliminary arrangements, and (g) promotion.

Organization for Administration

While there has been little significant research in this area, there has been some thinking and writing. It seems desirable to refer to literature describing the growth of a recognition of the need for teacher and pupil participation in the formulation of administrative policy.

In a bulletin of the Department of Elementary School Principals of the National Education Association (111), one section was devoted to the question of pupil participation in school management. In this section Lewis stated that the only sound reason for such participation is found in the development of the necessary social attitudes and skills for successful living in a democratic society. Feuerstein and Martin (98) gave as the function of the school council, through which participation takes place in this case, the helping of the child to discover and to use opportunities for service. They stated that there are many problems in every school which might be discovered and solved in an intelligent way by the children if they were given the opportunity. Both studies stressed the importance of the need for some delegated real responsibility and authority. Neither the transfer of all authority to the pupil nor the setting up of a make-believe or play situation is desirable.

In evaluating the outcomes of pupil participation, Feuerstein and Martin (98) listed growth in poise, social consciousness, and initiative. Ringdahl (122) cited as the most important outcome the meeting of real changing situations that require thinking on the part of the pupil. Eller (96) pointed out the growth in ability in self-government, civic responsibility, and character.

In the area of teacher participation, the most comprehensive study was made by the Department of Elementary School Principals of the Michigan

Education Association. Their Eighth Yearbook (109) was devoted entirely to the question of democratic participation in administration. It was concerned primarily with the participation of teachers in the formulation of administrative policies.

General Trends

In a discussion of the changes which would result if the findings of research were applied to the organization of the elementary school, Melby (108) stated that our graded-school system, grade placements by grades and years, the present systems of promotion and failure, our marking system, mass instruction, and much of our present administrative machinery and theory should all be scrapped and replaced by practices more in keeping with the findings regarding the nature of children and the process of learning. He further contended that "the important decisions in education must be made in individual classrooms by individual teachers with reference to individual children from day to day." Somewhat the same general conception of the organizational implications of research in related fields was set forth by Otto (117). He found the elementary school changing from a régime of inactivity, of sitting quietly and listening, to a type of school in which activity, creative work, individual initiative, and constructive experiments are stressed. This book covered the various types of internal organization, classification of pupils, promotional practices, organization for the instruction and the improvement of instruction, and several other phases of elementary-school management.

Dougherty and others (94) presented in their book the problems of organization and administration in a manner designed for use by the teacher in pre-service training. Most books on school organization are written for professional workers in the field of administration. Other general treatments of the problems of organization are found in the works of Raymont (121), Lull (107), Townsend (128), and a bulletin of the California Elementary School Principals Association (85).

B. SECONDARY SCHOOL

The functional organization of secondary schools is so inextricably associated with the curriculum and with guidance that any attempt to treat this topic in isolation would be highly artificial. Three years ago this topic was reviewed in the *Review of Educational Research* (228). At that time summaries of research were made under the following headings: the guidance program, extracurriculum activities, recitation schedules, and promotion plans. The April 1936 issue of the *Review of Educational Research* (192) summarized the literature up to October 1, 1935, on the topics of guidance, extracurriculum activities, and promotional practices. The April 1937 issue of the *Review of Educational Research* (189) presented a review of significant material having many direct and indirect implications for the functional organizations of secondary schools. The present discussion, therefore, is supplementary to, and overlaps, much that

has been presented recently in the two summaries mentioned above (189, 192). The reader interested in the functional organization of secondary schools should consult these issues, as well as other issues of the *Review of Educational Research* on such topics as "Psychology of Learning, General Methods of Teaching, and Supervision" (159).

New Concept of Secondary Education

Little experimental evidence, of the statistically validated type, now exists to support the changes currently advocated for the reorganization of secondary education. A vast amount of philosophical and creative thinking, however, have been devoted to the problem of how secondary schools can be readapted to fit the needs of presentday society. In view of the competent sponsorship of the current movement for a rethinking of the goals and procedures of secondary education, any treatment of the topic of functional organization of secondary schools can hardly escape the obligation to consider some of the implications of "The New Secondary Education."

The Committee on Orientation, of the Department of Secondary School Principals, headed by Briggs, in its two most significant reports (150, 151), considered the *issues* and *functions* of secondary education in the light of the needs and imperatives of the modern era. Among the implications of the extensive deliberations of this committee for the functional organization of secondary education are the following:

1. There is a growing tendency to develop a core-curriculum in terms of the basic needs and interests of all students. This is resulting in some schools in the setting aside of two- and three-hour blocks of time in the daily schedule wherein the pupils' experiences are directed by one teacher with or without the assistance of other specialists.
2. There is a tendency to organize the instructional set-up more definitely for guidance purposes. This is resulting in some schools in provisions for a longer period of contact between the student and the teacher responsible for his guidance.
3. There is a slight though growing tendency to depart from the conventional five-day-a-week scheme of subject offerings. This is resulting in some schools in instructional offerings being provided in one, two, or three single or double periods per week.
4. There is a tendency to arrange class schedules so as to afford the pupil more time for independent, unsupervised work.

Aiken (134), in describing the organizational changes resulting in the schools of the Progressive Education Association experiment, mentioned the following:

1. Teachers are participating more fully in planning work, sharing teaching responsibilities, and in a critical evaluation of results.
2. Artificial barriers between subjects are being removed.
3. There is a tendency to lengthen the school day, to make programs of work more flexible, with longer uninterrupted periods of work.
4. The school is tending to make increasingly wider use of community resources for instructional purposes.

The following writers advocating various degrees of secondary-school reorganization offered many implications for the changing internal structure of the modern high school: Argo (139), Bogoslovsky (147), Briggs (152), Everett (177), French (181, 182, 183), Hanna and others (188), Hart (190), Norton and Norton (216), Rugg (234), Ryan (235), Thayer (252), Watson (254), and Wrinkle (258). This is a representative, rather than an exhaustive list.

If the thinking of these and other educational workers continues to influence practice to the extent that it has recently, it would seem that an increasing amount of research is immediately needed to assist in guiding the far-reaching changes that are almost certain to take place in the functional organization of secondary education.

Over against the slowly developing reorganization in secondary education is the statistical picture of current practice. Clement and Clevenger (165), in a study of the offerings of 550 accredited high schools of the North Central Association, analyzed subject prescriptions and grade placements, and warned against the current statistical tendency toward an offering of a multiplicity of related courses rather than a synthesization of basic concepts and ideas. Hotz (196, 197), in reports of a study of trends in the high schools of the North Central Association covering the period from 1930 to 1933, noted that in the fields of the commercial subjects, social studies, English, industrial arts, and music, more subjects have been added to the curriculum than have been dropped. Brunner and Lorge (156), from their long-time survey of rural schools, noted this same tendency. Their figures show that in the period 1924-30, some 164 courses or departments were added and 36 dropped. In the period 1930-36, 331 courses or departments were added whereas only 82 were dropped. In their survey the new courses were largely in the field of the social sciences with vocational education and guidance functions ranking next in importance. Clem and Klyver (164) reported an investigation of curricular practices in 54 six-year high schools in New York and Pennsylvania. They found that these schools prescribe from 50 to 75 percent of the curriculum in Grades IX to XII, and nearly 90 percent in Grades VII and VIII. Another finding of this study was that professors of secondary education the country over had a more liberal attitude toward the modification of instructional procedures and offerings than had principals and superintendents. That the movement toward a serious consideration of instructional procedure is widespread is shown in a study by Balyeat (143) who found that by the close of 1936 some 32 statewide curriculum programs were under way with an obvious trend toward a long-time program.

The Small High School

A considerable body of literature has appeared recently concerning the functional organization of the small high school for purposes of providing breadth of offering, provision for individual differences, and other technics of enrichment. Possibly the most complete recent treatment of this subject

° is to be found in the books by Broady (155), Langfitt, Cyr, and Newsom (206), and in the 1934 Yearbook of the Department of Rural Education of the National Education Association (214). These sources advocated the following, among others, as desirable technics for overcoming some of the organizational handicaps of smallness:

1. Alternation of classes
2. Circuit teachers
3. Supervised correspondence study
4. Wider use of community resources, including the radio
5. Cooperative sharing of vital instructional aids.

The above sources contained suggested plans for scheduling and grouping in the small high school, as also do studies by Broady (154), Buck (158), Cyr (170), Highsmith (194), Skiles (240), Soper (242), Spaulding (244), and Van Cott (253). A type of scheduling which utilizes teachers' talents more effectively in the small high school is described in a report of a study of 28 small high schools in the North Central states by Otto (218). The *Phi Delta Kappan* (241) devoted a special issue to the problems of the small high school with the following contributors: Broady, Hughes, Melby, Reavis, Corning, Gaumnitz, Henzlik, Langfitt, Cyr, Hunkins, Caswell, Lawson, Darlington, Haight, Rinsland, Pearson, Eggert, Francis, Kilpatrick, Kraushaar, Trainor, Stork, and Reigner. A bibliography covering the small high school was compiled and annotated by Stoneman, Broady, and Platt (249).

Recitation Schedules

Wiggins (256), from an analysis of case studies of high-school organization, suggested that one of the most serious types of maladministration in regard to internal organization is to be found in poorly constructed recitation schedules. Puckett (224) stated that if an efficient system of schedule making is followed practically all difficulties, except conflicts, may be avoided. He found also that the size of the school has little relation to conflict difficulties, and that most such troubles arise from school regulations requiring double periods for some subjects. Butterfield (160) and McLeary (208) suggested ingenious technics for "scientific" schedule making in secondary schools.

Hotz (196, 197) noted a continuance of the trend toward a longer recitation period. McMillin (209) concluded that the hour period is not only more effective and satisfactory, but more economical than the 40-minute period if properly adapted. Clevenger (166), in a study of North Central Association high schools, affirmed the trend toward the longer recitation period, and presented a summary of arguments for and against it. Maberry (207) stated, however, that lengthened periods demand more thoughtful preparation on the part of the teacher and more skilfully planned instructional aids. The most recent experimental research in regard to the optimum length of recitation periods is found in the study

by H. H. Stewart (247). Using the tenth grade in a public high school, Stewart divided the term into two equal parts. Using periods of 40, 80, and 110 minutes daily, the students in the longer periods of the experiment carried two subjects in each half of the term in place of carrying four subjects concurrently. Stewart's findings indicated that the 80-minute period is superior according to standard test results, and that the concentrated plan of fewer subjects is the more efficient plan of organization. Manheimer (210) proposed an experiment in the organization of a high school in the light of Stewart's findings, suggesting a detailed plan for the scheduling of the so-called "solid" subjects in 67-minute periods meeting three times a week. Spaulding (243) held for a scheme of scheduling and program making which will afford pupils more time for independent, unsupervised work.

Extracurriculum Activities

The most significant research studies covering extracurriculum activities between 1930 and October 1, 1935, are summarized by Eikenberry in a recent issue of the *Review of Educational Research* (192:212). Eikenberry concluded his thorough summarization of this topic in these words:

The trend of much presentday thinking with respect to secondary education is distinctly in the direction of breaking down the traditional dualism between "curriculum" and "extra-curriculum" activities. Subscribing to a definition of the term "curriculum" which includes all activities of an educative value, the reviewer believes that major emphasis in future research should be given the problems involved in fusing into one integrated whole our present "curriculum" and "extra-curriculum" activities. Jones's study [201] marks the beginning of what the reviewer hopes will be a series of studies addressed to this important problem.

Supporting the trend noted in G. Jones's study (201), several studies and articles have appeared recently. They include, however, no research of the experimental character advocated above by Eikenberry. Bair (140) proposed the development of a vital social program as an integral part of the organization of a secondary school and described the administrative arrangements necessary for the realization of this objective. Pierce (222) noted the trend toward making extracurriculum activities a more unified part of the total school program in the West High School of Chicago. The Sacramento Senior High School (225) introduced a special course in the curriculum to afford student body leaders an opportunity for training for the discharge of their responsibilities. This course carries full social studies credit. Hunt (199) told of the administration of a plan which schedules some activities throughout each school day and on a par with school subjects.

Cory (168) and White (255) presented evidence to show that oftentimes pupils are scheduled to extracurriculum activities with no constructive program in mind and that a lack of proper guidance to safeguard pupil needs and interests predominates in the practice of the schools studied. In this connection Sears (237) stated that there is a real need for funda-

- ° mental research which will throw light on the effects of extracurriculum practice upon:

1. The physical and mental health of the child
2. The efficiency of his academic training
3. The social development of the child.

A plan for administering activities whereby they may be organized in terms of real student interests was outlined by G. D. Baker (141) who suggested that interests may best be safeguarded when clubs are set in terms of student suggestions rather than in terms of conformity to a program worked out in advance by the faculty. Knox (205) surveyed the extracurriculum practices of 500 New York state high schools and reported a tendency to encourage pupils in the direction of clubs and other school activities without absolute requirement.

Numerous books and articles suggesting plans and procedures for the administration of extracurriculum activities have appeared recently. Among them are: a book on the organization and administration of high-school homerooms, clubs, and assemblies, by Roemer, Allen, and Yarnell (232); a study by Pendry and Hartshorne (220) which gives a detailed description of the objectives, programs, organization, and administration of 40 out-of-school organizations which are established to furnish activities of the character building type for boys and girls; a manual by Wyman (259) on the organization and administration of student councils; and a manual of practices by Morgan and Millard (212). Two articles presenting basic principles for the administration of extracurriculum activities by Altstetter (138) and Eaton (174), gave helpful suggestions. Other studies describing the set-up for pupil activities of the governmental type were reported by Bryan (157), Davis (171), Hayes (191), Proffitt (223), and Sheldon (239). Terry (251) supplemented his previous bibliographies on the literature of extracurriculum activities with another annotated list of 40 selected references. Pangburn gave an extensive bibliography on recreation (219).

Guidance

Any consideration of the need for a thoroughgoing scheme of guidance has numerous implications for the functional organization of the secondary school. Reavis (227), in a review of the value of the study of guidance conducted by the National Survey of Secondary Education, concluded, among other things, that the downward trend of intelligence in the majority of secondary schools requires a readjustment in the functional organization and administration of secondary schools as well as an increasingly effective guidance set-up.

Most guidance programs have been superimposed on the instructional organization of the secondary school. That there is a tendency to merge the two into a more unified whole is attested to by a small but growing number of attempts to reorganize the secondary school to the end that

every pupil will have some teacher who is definitely and continuously interested in, and responsible for, the adjustments necessary for the pupil's optimum growth. Proffitt (223), in an analysis of the programs of guidance in 70 school systems, stated that "the limitations in school curricula as compared with the various needs of pupils constitute a serious deterrent to appropriate advisement and a barrier to carrying into effect adjustments based upon sound educational and vocational counseling." Pierce (222) noted the progress made in the West High School of Chicago toward making guidance services more integral parts of a broad and unified school program.

Descriptions of other local guidance organizations were presented by: Nylen (217), who described a comprehensive program in West Seattle; Becker (144), who described guidance at work in a large city school; Granger (184) and Stetson (245), who presented detailed systems of comprehensive organization.

Allen (136, 137), A. J. Jones (200), and the Pennsylvania study (221) presented suggestions in book form for developing guidance practices and organization in secondary schools.

Class Size

The recent period of financial stress, with its curtailing effect upon school budgets, has doubtless been a stimulating factor in the increasing attention being given to the problem of optimum class size. Most research in this field has utilized evaluative devices which measure very inadequately the professed objectives of secondary education. This fact should be kept in mind as the results of the studies herein noted are summarized.

Highsmith (193) summarized the research relating to class size to 1932, and Gray (185) presented a similar summary of studies and experiments to 1934. Both concluded that class size had little effect upon the outcomes of instruction, as measured by standardized tests.

Hand and Carley (186) summarized and analyzed the data on this problem collected by the National Survey of Secondary Education and presented statistical information concerning the prevalence of large classes. According to the findings of their study of 1,800 representative secondary schools, the majority enrolling more than 500 pupils, 21.5 percent had one or more classes of 50 or more pupils (exclusive of such groupings as were found in physical education, glee club, band, orchestra, and homeroom). Schools reporting these large classes had a median of three such groups. Nearly one-half of these large groups were found in the commercial subjects and in music. Carley and Hand (161), in another analysis of these data, suggested that the majority of secondary-school administrators are reluctant to experiment with large classes.

At least three doctoral dissertations have sought recently to throw light on the relation of class size to pupil achievement. Fausold (179) organized a group of 40 pupils and one of 80 pupils in two adjoining rooms and compared the results on achievement tests over a sixteen-week period of instruction. His pupils were matched by the McCall technic. He concluded:

1. Large classes of approximately 75 pupils may be organized and taught without any statistically significant loss in such subjects as mathematics, social studies, English usage, English literature, and general science in the lower years of the junior high school.

2. Achievement in English literature and social science seemed to be slightly better in large classes.

3. Although achievement in informational mathematics was as great in large classes, computational or drill mathematics was slightly better in the smaller group.

4. General science seemed to be slightly better in the smaller group.

5. In drill subjects, slow pupils show a tendency to flounder a bit more in the large group than in the small group.

6. Technics, materials of instruction, housing conditions, and teacher competence are all significant factors affecting the efficiency of large group instruction.

Ewan (178), in another doctoral study, presented results which seem to indicate that pupils seem to achieve as well in large classes as in small. Eastburn (173), in a doctoral study covering a long period of time, introduced the Hand-Carley Attitude form to supplement standard tests in an intensive investigation of the relation of class size to achievement at various ability levels. He concluded:

1. Class size is an unimportant factor in determining the efficiency of instruction on any ability level, when efficiency is measured by means of objective tests.

2. The students of the upper ability level in American history and in English did slightly better in small classes, although the difference was not statistically significant.

3. Students of the middle ability level in English did significantly better in large classes.

4. Students of the middle ability level in American history did slightly better in small classes.

5. Students of the lower ability level in American history and in English did slightly better in small classes.

6. Class size was not an important factor in determining attitudes as measured by the Hand-Carley Attitude form.

Hand and Smith (187) reported a study of the effectiveness of instruction in a large class group of 100 pupils. A commercial teacher taught three groups of ninth-grade pupils with 105 in the large group and 25 and 22 in the other two. The pupils were tested on the Crabbe-Slinker test at the beginning and at the end of the experiment. The pupils were grouped at random. No significant difference in favor of the two small groups was found. A dissenting note was presented by H. L. Baker (142) who pointed out that there is a significant loss in teacher information and knowledge about pupils in large class situations.

The use of large classes raises problems of teaching methods and instructional aids. D. H. Stewart (246) indicated that large classes in history, English, biology, and algebra can be taught efficiently by the "subject plan" with the careful use of study guides and other directional helps for pupils. Stoddard (248) reported a study in the Providence schools involving the utilization of sound pictures. Three experimental groups of 150 pupils each, three control groups of 150 pupils each, and

three small groups of 40 pupils each were set up. Classes of 150 which were taught with the same methods and devices as classes of 40 were found to learn less, but when classes of 150 were taught with the substitution of sound pictures for some of the methods and devices used with classes of 40, the large groups were found to learn more. Worrell (257) presented technics for using visual aids in large group instruction.

Sears (238), in discussing the problem of optimum class size and teacher load in a modern school program, stated that a new kind of research is needed to take into account the influence upon teaching load of the increasing demands upon teachers' time for individual conferences, curriculum work, and the like. Quanbeck and Douglass (226) suggested that the increasing complexity of the internal organization of secondary schools calls for a more accurate and refined measure of teaching load. They presented a mathematical formula which takes into account subject differences, study hall demands, extracurriculum activities, and other duties. The report is based upon results of experimentation with this device in 129 schools involving 1,265 teachers and principals.

Eastburn (173) admitted the possibility of a diminution of guidance of pupils in a school in which there is widespread utilization of large classes without a corresponding strengthening of the guidance program. It would seem that there is real need for research which would discover the possibilities for pupil growth in a school organization which uses a judicious combination of very large and very small groups. Such a program might be organized so as to provide for the intimate contact of every pupil in the school with one teacher two or more hours daily in groups of 12 to 15 pupils. If this were supplemented with attendance upon very large groups the remainder of the school day, no additional teachers would be required in the average high school. This type of experimentation however, while theoretically desirable, awaits the development of valid technics for the measurement of the realization of the objectives of secondary education before any statistically proved conclusions could be advanced.

Grouping of Pupils

The most authoritative treatment of recent evidence in regard to the grouping of pupils for instructional purposes is presented by the National Society for the Study of Education (215). Four chapters of this recent yearbook are cited here as illustrative of trends of thought and study in this field.

Alberty and Brim (135) discussed the relation of the newer educational practices to grouping and concluded "it would seem that ability grouping as commonly practiced leaves much to be desired as an effective tool for achieving the values of the new education." Billett (145) presented the following conclusions in regard to the administration of grouping in the secondary school:

... The following types of groups are likely to be most effective in the principal educative situations provided by the modern secondary school:

- ° (1) A total group as heterogeneous as the community
- (2) Homeroom, advisory, and guidance groups that are cross-sections of the total group
- (3) Extracurricular groups highly heterogeneous in most respects other than interest
- (4) Classroom groups with much less than chance heterogeneity among the pupils composing each group, in the rates, levels, and potential degrees of complexity of those aspects of educative growth that it is the purpose of the particular classroom activity to promote.

Billett further stated that different criteria for grouping are needed for varying learning situations, taking into consideration factors of special ability, interests, mental age, needs, and aims. Engelhardt (175) stated that "The most desirable plans for classifying pupils in public elementary and secondary schools are yet to be devised." He further noted that "classification for home room purposes, for activity periods, for extracurricular activities, for regular instruction, for counseling and guidance are not to be considered independently."

Hopkins (195) made the following observations regarding the demands of the changing secondary education for the grouping of pupils:

On the basis of the present movement away from the fixed-subject curriculum toward one with greater flexibility in all aspects, it seems safe to suggest that the following trends are indicated in the more recent curriculum materials:

- (1) An increase in homogeneous grouping
- (2) A decrease in ability grouping as conceived under the subject curriculum
- (3) An increase in the use of short-time ability groups to meet special individual needs within homogeneous groups
- (4) An increasing freedom for pupils and teachers to plan as to needs and best ways of meeting individual and group needs successfully
- (5) An increasing recognition of grades as years of life, with emphasis upon rich living rather than upon learning subjectmatter with adult-dominated standards in adult-preferred subjects.

Spaulding (243), in discussing how the findings of the National Survey of Secondary Education can serve the individual secondary school, observed:

No evidence obtained in the Survey permits one to conclude that the adoption of a particular form of grade grouping *causes* superior internal organization. . . . But the results of the Survey do suggest that certain plans of grade grouping *make easier* the provision of numerous desirable internal arrangements.

Frederick (180) arrived at the same conclusion.

Richardson (231) stated that although the I. Q. is relatively constant it is inappropriate for guidance purposes. Rogers (233) pointed out that many experiments with homogeneous grouping have been misleading because experimental groups of different I. Q. levels were taught with identical methods. Billett (146) proposed the need for fundamental research on forms of grouping. Breidenstine (149) concluded that other factors than ability grouping are more important in the educational achievement of pupils. On the other hand, teachers, parents, and school

officials were found by Sauvain (236) to favor homogeneous or ability grouping.

Cohen and Coryell (167) recorded the results of the studies conducted under the auspices of the Association of First Assistants in the high schools of the city of New York, to ascertain the status of the exceptionally bright child in 14 subjects. The Music and Arts High School of New York represents an attempt to provide for talented pupils through segregation in a special school at the beginning of the ninth grade (213).

Comprehensive Treatises

Several books have appeared recently containing much material bearing upon the internal organization of secondary schools. Among them are works by Bolton, Cole, and Jessup (148), Briggs (152), Caswell and Campbell (162), Chamberlain (163), Cox and Langfitt (169), Douglass (172), Engelhardt and Overn (176), Langfitt, Cyr, and Newsom (206), Maxwell and Kilzer (211), Rice, Conrad, and Fleming (230), and Strang (250). Good general bibliographies on school organization were presented by Kefauver and Eastburn (203), Kefauver and McKenzie (202), and Reavis and Henry (229).

CHAPTER IV

Extension of Educational Organization

A. KINDERGARTEN AND NURSERY SCHOOLS

THE STATUS OF THE KINDERGARTENS AND THE NURSERY SCHOOLS in the American educational system has changed considerably during the past few years. Data presented in the *Biennial Survey* of the United States Office of Education for 1934 (276) showed that during the four-year period from 1930 to 1934 the kindergarten enrolment dropped from 723,443 to 601,775, or 16.8 percent. The survey accounts for the decrease by the facts that (a) many cities after 1930 began to eliminate some or all of their kindergartens so as to help reduce expenses during the period when boards of education were taking drastic measures to economize, and (b) in some cities the entrance age to the kindergarten was raised. The same general trend, up to 1934, is observed with respect to nursery schools. In that year, however, the federal Government began the establishment of nursery schools as part of its emergency relief program. According to figures of the Office of Education there were only 13 nursery schools supported by public funds in 1932; by the beginning of 1935 the federal emergency relief program had raised the number to over 3,000.

Langdon (272) and Kelley (271) reported the facts concerning the emergency nursery schools for 1935 and 1936, respectively. Some 65,000 children from two to four years of age were cared for by these schools which were established in forty-seven states and in Puerto Rico. In general, the nurseries took care of the underprivileged child. With respect to the social-economic condition of the families cared for by the schools, about 45 percent of the children came from homes with four or more children, over 46 percent from homes of four rooms or less, and 30 percent from homes with neither toys nor books. The health of the children attending these emergency nursery schools was poor; 43 percent of the children suffered from bad tonsils, 26 percent had defective adenoids, and 20 percent had poor teeth. The data introduced show clearly the need for some type of agency to care for the young underprivileged child. The Thirteenth Yearbook of the Department of Superintendence of the National Education Association (274) discussed the need for child education with particular emphasis upon the changing position of the child in the present-day economic order.

Davis (266) investigated the status of nursery schools other than those maintained by the federal emergency relief program. Of 251 schools, 77 were conducted in cooperation with colleges and universities; 19 were operated in connection with social settlements; 144 were tuition schools; and only 11 were supported publicly. The present tendency is to regard the nursery school primarily either as a child-development laboratory or as an institution to care for children below kindergarten age who are deprived of parental care during the day. The inclusion of nursery schools in the elementary-school unit is advocated by only a few persons. The kinder-

gartens, on the other hand, have been generally accepted as an integral part of the public school system in most large cities.

Legislation concerning the education of young children indicates a widening interest in early childhood education (270). Forty-two states have enacted legislation with reference to the establishment of kindergartens and under the general terms of school laws in other states some kindergarten facilities have been maintained. In Wisconsin, and in five other states, the law is most liberal and offers an opportunity for the parent to join with others and voice his desires. The Wisconsin law stipulates that school-boards must establish a kindergarten when petitioned by parents if there are twenty-five children four to six years of age residing within a mile of school.

The trend of public interest in providing an educational program for young children is shown in a study by Bradbury and Skeels (262). In an analysis of the literature dealing with nursery education, it was found that the number of articles appearing yearly increased constantly from four articles in 1920 to over seventy in 1934. Over one-fourth of the articles at the later date were reports of scientific investigations. The National Association for Nursery Education published the titles of the articles which Bradbury studied as a bibliography of selected references on nursery education (264).

Gesell (268), utilizing many of the recent research findings, presented the problem of the educational organization of the first six years of human life. He indicated that the problem must be approached from a broad social point of view and that the nursery school is not to be regarded as another sub-primary addition to the present graded-school system. Anderson (260) also wrote of the relationship of nursery schools to public education. He showed that the personality and social development of the child are proper responsibilities of the public schools. Large numbers of children at the kindergarten and primary levels still need expert help, which they have not received during their preschool development. Only in exceptional schoolrooms and school systems are they receiving such help.

Bradbury (263) studied the findings of fourteen investigations in an attempt to evaluate nursery schools. He found that nursery-school training (a) accelerated the child's intellectual growth; (b) developed a more integrated personality in children and made them more independent, self-assertive, and self-reliant than those without nursery-school training; and (c) improved the health and health habits of the children. Myers (275), in a study of 88 first-grade pupils, found that those who had attended kindergarten did decidedly better than the non-kindergartners both as to progress in subjectmatter and the ability to adjust themselves to school conditions. Another study indicating the merits of childhood education reported the practices and procedures of the St. George School for Child Study at the University of Toronto (261). Other studies of the measurable values of kindergartens and nursery schools were published by various childhood education associations (265, 269).

A committee of the National Association for Nursery Education prepared a report containing a statement of child needs and the attendant nursery-school provisions (277). The Association for Childhood Education published a report concerning curriculum trends (278). In an analysis of educational magazines, professional books, yearbooks of various societies, and through a field study, the curriculum trends with reference to childhood education have been determined. The decided trend is toward an activity type of curriculum for the kindergartens and nursery schools.

In the hope of understanding better the education of young children, the Office of Education investigated the various programs in effect in European countries (267). The report described the location of the administrative responsibility for the programs for young children below compulsory school age, provisions for financial support, housing and equipment of the nursery schools and kindergartens, health and nutrition work, and other problems in childhood education. Leeper (273) also studied the character of the education of young children in some eighteen odd countries; some of these countries are extending exceptional privileges to young children.

B. ADULT EDUCATION

Adult learning—The publication by Thorndike and others (321) in 1928 of the results of his experiments in adult learning contributed a great deal to the interest in this field. The original conclusions have been somewhat modified by other experimenters and by further research on Thorndike's part. Lorge (301) summarized the more recent developments in this area. He emphasized that the pure ability to learn does not decrease so much as do the physical characteristics necessary therefor, such as speed of reaction, coordination, and various sensory acuities.

Many criticisms have been offered of Thorndike's earlier experiments, most of them centering around the claim that the emphasis was on creating conditions which admitted of scientific measurement and analysis rather than on producing situations which were true to life. In spite of these criticisms no basic faults have been found with the original conclusions. It is still regarded as true that when intelligence is conceived of in terms of mental power and speed the adult reaches the maximum capacity to learn somewhere near the age of twenty-five. Later experiments by Lorge (301) showed that when power alone is considered ability to learn decreases little, if at all, before the age of forty-five. This conclusion was based on experiments which included situations common both to adult learning and to childhood learning. It is true that an artificial language was made use of, but it was a logical language.

The experiments in adult interests by Thorndike and others (320) seemed to indicate that, even though interests shift, adults have interests which are broad enough to motivate any type of desirable adult education. Strong (316) studied the shift in adult interests. He was even more optimistic than Thorndike, claiming that interests increase with age.

Sorenson (314) came to the conclusion that differences in ability of adults to learn were due more to discontinuance of active learning than to inability to learn. He felt that as people grow older they develop fixed patterns of thinking which create the impression that learning is more difficult, while in fact change in habits is the thing that is difficult. His conclusion was that active participation in learning situations in adulthood would lead to modifiability as striking as that in youth. Weisenberg, Roe, and McBride (326) summarized the various studies in adult learning and concluded that the greatest waste in adult education is due to the fact that we do not take time for diagnosis before teaching.

Certain theories concerning adult learning have been experimented with in the field of reading. Gray and Munroe (293) brought together what was known in the field at that time and conducted basic studies from which others have sprung. Waples and Tyler (325) conducted a study subsequent to Gray and Munroe's concerning what people like to read. This work has received wide circulation among persons interested in adult education, especially librarians, publishers, and booksellers. Gray and Leary (294) have recently collected material on the readability of books.

Survey studies—Peffer (308), working under a grant from the Carnegie Corporation, published a general study entitled *New Schools for Older Students* in 1926. Cartwright's report (286), *Ten Years of Adult Education*, may be thought of as a supplement to Peffer's, bringing it down to 1935. Noffsinger (305) summarized the type and method of instruction in correspondence schools, chautauquas, and lyceums. This study not only presented the facts concerning past experience with adult education but also indicated some of the pitfalls. In the same class may be listed studies by Hall-Quest (296) of university extension and by Landis and Willard (300) of rural adult education. The last study has a special significance because it analyzed the largest and oldest ventures in the field of adult education. It was supplemented by Brunner and Lorge (283).

The library has perhaps been the oldest agency for adult education. A study was made by the American Library Association (279) in 1926 on the types of services rendered by the library and the methods used. Other studies followed, and were based largely on modifications suggested in this study. The results are reported in the general literature referred to later.

We do not normally consider prisons as a favorable environment for adult education. Yet the study by MacCormick (304) on the education of adult prisoners contributed not only to the intelligent treatment of our prison population but also to basic principles applicable to all adult education. A recent report (290) to the Governor of New York by the Commission for the Study of Educational Problems of Penal Institutions for Youth was likewise of fundamental import for general education.

Bloom (282) made a historical study in 1931 of state provisions for adult education. Bryson (285)*described the California plan. Numerous community surveys and experiments were conducted, such as those at Radburn

(298), where an organized program of adult living was conceived of in connection with a planned community; and in South Carolina (292), where experiments were conducted in elementary education at the adult level for both white and colored. Lorimer (302) and Lundberg and others (303) studied a large city and its metropolitan areas. Ozanne (306) described the most acceptable methods to be used in inaugurating adult education programs. In view of the fact that the initiation of most local programs involves public discussion, Fansler (291) made a case study of materials to be used in forums, together with suggestions as to procedures and warnings as to pitfalls.

Adult education under private initiative was discussed by Peffer (307) in his consideration of the work being done by industry in the education of employees. Shaw (312) and Beals (280) gave a review of the efforts made by universities in the field of alumni education. Bittner and Mallory (281) supplemented the study of Noffsinger (305) by a more intensive investigation of the correspondence activities of universities. Tyson (323), in 1930, made a study of the relationship of adult education and radio broadcasting. He attempted to bring the broadcasters and the adult listeners to a common understanding of the problems involved.

Ely (289) reported selections from the *Journal of Adult Education* which she considered the most significant contributions to the Journal since its inception, up to the latter part of 1935. This book has in a remarkable way interwoven the whole pattern of thinking on adult education, giving a picture of the various elements in the growth of the movement. While the book reports much that is not research, it is valuable in presenting a perspective of the work.

The coordinating influence of the American Association of Adult Education is well brought out in the *Handbook of Adult Education* (311). This book not only gives significant up-to-date facts concerning adult education but also lists the names and addresses of more than one thousand local and national associations engaging in active programs.

Evaluation—Up to the present moment the American Association for Adult Education has been primarily interested in encouraging activity within the field and in assisting in the conduct of experimental programs through advice and financial assistance. Its plans for the next period of five years involve studies which will attempt to evaluate adult education programs and methods of instruction. At the present time little that is truly evaluative is available.

Herring (297), in his description of an adult education program in Chester County, Pennsylvania, gave cautions concerning the introduction of outside experts into a community for the purpose of conducting adult education. Studebaker (317) pictured the need for adult education and expressed optimism concerning possibilities of the forum as a significant means of adult education. His enthusiasm for this type of education is again demonstrated in his recent book, *Plain Talk* (318). A less optimistic and perhaps more realistic view was presented in the recent report of the

Delaware State Department of Education (288). This report is particularly valuable because it concerns a type of adult education not expected in a rural community. Williams and Heath (327), in an evaluation of the adult education program in England, based on a series of case studies, gave many suggestions concerning the pitfalls which should be avoided in our program before it settles down to routine and vested interest.

Perhaps the most significant recent book, which is not at all the result of research, is one by Torbert (322) which discussed the procedures followed in Maplewood, New Jersey. This program has significance primarily because of its breadth. It may represent what adult education, broadly conceived, will tend towards.

Bryson (284) wrote the first real textbook for adult education. It is filled with the practical wisdom of a leader in the field.

Gruenberg (295) found that the lack of interest in science among adult learners is most likely due to the antithesis of scientists towards so-called popular education. Work is now in progress looking towards the preparation of material that will test his hypothesis. Kotinsky (299) believed the social science to be so complex that adult education can be justified as holding promise towards understanding it and training towards the creation of remedial measures. Wickenden and Spahr (313) gave us an insight into a technical field which lies between high school and college and which provides a type of training wherein the occupational demands far exceed the supply. Prosser and Bass (310) gave a view of industrial education which most persons would conceive to be much too narrowly vocational but which should temper the extreme generalist. The report of the Denver Opportunity School (319) more nearly conforms to the best thinking in this area.

Bibliographies on adult education have been prepared by Congdon and Henry (287), Proctor (309), and Tyson (324).

Needed research—The financing of adult education has received little study. The justification of adult education at public expense must be viewed from two perspectives: (a) will the increased contribution of the individual to the common welfare justify the expenditure? and (b), will a failure to provide adult education result in antisocial action which far exceeds the cost of adult education?

C. CIVILIAN CONSERVATION CORPS

The most complete compilation of statistics and opinion on the Civilian Conservation Corps to date, with an annotated bibliography, was made by Phi Delta Kappa (332). This presentation contains most of the facts and expressions of philosophy and theory which are spread widely throughout educational literature. Hill (333) made the only serious study of the whole program of the C. C. C. He reported, as an interested observer, the facts as he saw them. Butler (329), Hoyt (334), Oliver and Dudley (335), and to a lesser degree Dearborn (330), presented books that are

given little to facts and much to statements. Dearborn's study is the best of these.

Several sociological studies of the C. C. C. have been made; these are listed in the bibliography previously cited (332). Few evaluative studies are available. The best of the sociological and quasi-evaluative studies are those by Douglas and Allen (331) and Aydelott (328). Each of these studies indicated that the enrollees are genuinely in need, that their educational level is roughly first year high school, on the average, that the public schools did not meet the needs of the enrollees, and that educational opportunity is not nearly equalized in the United States or even within the states. These studies, however, together with other camp literature, have not demonstrated that the educational programs of the best camps cannot be duplicated many times over in the best public schools.

Four research studies are now being conducted by staffs at Teachers College of Columbia University, Boston University, Ohio State University, and Washington University. When completed, the studies will cover: (a) a job analysis of the work of the camp educational adviser; (b) a study of successful counseling and guidance technics in C. C. C. camp education; (c) a study of educational values in camp work projects and in camp community life, and the arrangement of these in project teaching form for experimental use; and (d) successful practices in the development of a coordinated recreational program in C. C. C. camps.

The American Youth Commission is attempting to evaluate the C. C. C. as a social institution. It is hoped that a clearer picture of the whole problem will evolve from this study. The results of the hearing before the Congress of the United States on the C. C. C. as a permanent policy, soon to be available, should be valuable. The Office of Education has much primary source material collected under the supervision of the National Director of C. C. C. Camp Education.

CHAPTER V

Organization of Administration in Territorial Units

A. CITIES

REFERENCE TO THE PAUCITY OF RESEARCH in the field of administrative organization of school systems was made in the last treatment of this subject in the *Review of Educational Research* for October 1934. In spite of extensive changes which have since been made in practice in this field, the statement will bear repeating at this date. Much has been said and written in the way of opinion, speculation, general information, news, but little in the way of scientific study has been carried through to the stage of publication.

One recent shift in research emphasis has been in the direction of school law. Both in number of published articles and in breadth of the field entered this field of study shows distinct growth. Deserving of mention in this connection is the guide by Cyr and Cunin (342) for use of those who wish to understand the technic by which one may find his way in the literature of the law. A second point of emphasis, or renewal of emphasis, is represented by historical studies, particularly of the superintendency. Only slight addition has been made through applications of measurement technic and little has developed in the way of new forms for any of the major features of organization in city school systems.

Boards of Education

Powers and duties—The Twelfth Yearbook of the Department of Superintendence of the National Education Association (368) presented the results of many researches bearing upon the control of public education. Facts and arguments have been analyzed and arranged to reveal some of the difficulties in the way of solving present major problems in the administering of our schools. Other more general discussions (350, 356, 362, 367, 371, 375) added valuable analyses or suggestions touching board functions, urging better division between board and executive duties, fuller use of regulations, and better relations with social and governmental forces of community.

In a study of the legal status of officers, agents, and employees of the public schools (336), numerous court decisions were examined by which clear distinction is made between powers of boards resting in constitutions and those resting in legislative enactments, and between the powers of an officer and those of an employee. A legislature cannot alter powers of a board if those powers are specified by constitution, but where such powers reside in statutes they may be changed at the will of the legislature. An office may be created either by constitution or by statute. For the rights and duties of the office, the officer must look to the instrument by which the office has been created. An employee looks not to law, either constitutional or statutory, for his rights and duties, but only to his contract.

Beyond the powers set forth specifically in law, boards have also freedom to use discretion in the exercise of their authority. Study has been made of court decisions (339, 341, 342, 364) by which some notion of the limitations within which such discretion may operate can be inferred. Generally, it appears, so long as a board does not act wantonly or maliciously, so long as it does not abuse its freedom to follow its own judgment, courts will not act to restrain it. In law, discretion is definitely recognized, and courts will not try to substitute their judgment of what is wise or expedient for what a board may have thought wise or expedient. Abuses of discretion are possible, however, though violation of law is not to be confused with abuse of discretion. If bad faith, injustice, inequity, fraud, malice, arbitrariness, lack of reason, or lack of authority can be shown, then discretion has been abused. Opportunity for abuse in this line is great, both in board legislation and in its inspectional and administrative decisions.

Independence versus dependence—Earlier studies of fiscal independence of boards were forwarded by a group of educators and political scientists at the University of Chicago. Commenting on data from this study, Henry (352) indicated that previous claims for the advantage of independence are not well supported by the facts. F. Engelhardt (346) pointed out some practical difficulties in the case of large cities, or of urban and rural consolidations, in the matter of adjusting taxes and payments for water and power.

Regulations—During the past four years no important researches in the field of existing board regulations have been reported. A useful summary and analysis of existing researches in this area was made by J. B. Sears (379), one section of which presented suggestions as to the nature and organization of such regulations, and another section presented an extensively annotated bibliography of the studies. The same author prepared an analysis of school administrative controls (378) which attempted a statement of the theory upon which responsibility for the control of schools is distributed to the board and the board's agents. Research service is brought into position as a feature of the system of control in a manner not heretofore proposed.

A number of useful discussions of the relationship of board and superintendent in the matter of powers and duties have been published (365, 384). Most of these only restated old principles but in some instances they were illustrated with new types of cases.

Boards superfluous—Discussions, apparently growing out of the breakdown of schoolboard management in Chicago, have led to the proposal by Judd (360, 361) and Edmondson (343) that schoolboards be eliminated, or at least given less control. The opposite view was defended by F. Engelhardt (345, 347) and Keyworth (363). The critics pointed to inefficiency, waste, delay in action, and interference caused by boards seeking personal advantages or bound by politics, tradition, or ignorance. The defenders called attention to the undesirable philosophy of management implied in the proposed substitute for board management, to the continued

progress toward proper division of labor between board and superintendent, and to the need for the board as a buffer or balance wheel in management.

Salaries—The question of salaries for boards continues to receive attention, the practice being opposed by F. Engelhardt (348) and supported by Hoffman (357).

Qualifications—Routh's investigation (375) indicated that our best board members are in their forties, have had some college education, are business people, and are successful in their work. Having children enrolled in school has no marked effect.

Administrative Officers

Superintendents—The history of the city school superintendency has received a substantial contribution in a study by Gilland (354). Basing his work upon the proceedings of boards of education and the annual reports of school officers in thirty cities, Gilland sought to determine the order in which superintendents' powers and duties have been evolved and the conditions that stimulated this development. The period covered by the reports was from the 1830's to 1929 for four of the cities. Seven others dated from the forties, seven from the fifties, and a few from as late as the eighties. Considering the dates of the founding of the cities, these sources cannot be questioned. The analysis is thorough and the results convincing, partly because factors outside the schools that tended to direct the course of public school development were taken into account. According to the findings of this study the superintendency was created, first, to supervise, not to administer, except in the sense of carrying out board orders. At first the superintendent had little control over the staff or building or finance. As boards became more and more involved in problems of grading, expanding curriculums, erecting more carefully organized buildings, supervising instruction, the need for planning and directing was felt and this gave opportunity for expanding the functions of the superintendent. This story brings expanding school population, pressure of increased expense, and change in organization, into focus as providing the reasons for having a strong executive head for the schools.

Stoutemyer (383) and Almack (337) added to this perspective by analysis and interpretation of historical movements. Reller (373) studied the development of the city superintendency as reflected in a large number of superintendents' reports. His study revealed how superintendents carry on their work, and showed how executive activities of boards have slowly shifted into the hands of the superintendent. In several articles (374), using data from his study, Reller pointed out instances of an executive in business appearing before or parallel with certain developments in the superintendency. The tendency to have two executives was marked from 1870 to 1900 after which the trend was toward a single executive. For large cities the control is still divided in a majority of cases. In 1934 Reller noted that about three-fourths of these cities have some degree of divided responsibility for executive service under the board.

A number of papers somewhat historical and interpretive were edited by J. B. Sears (380). Among these, one by Gwinn sketched the development of the city superintendency through the quarter century ending in 1934. This study makes clear how the development in administration has paralleled the growth in the science of education with its consequent influence upon the instructional program and the details of its administration. In the same collection Norton sketched the development of research and its functions in administration. In his review, reference is made to the shift in viewpoint from guessing to fact as a basis for action, and to the fact that from studies principles are slowly emerging to play a more dominant role in management. A third paper in the collection, by Hill, showed what shift has been made in the teaching of administration through these years. This paper pointed to the trend toward a larger emphasis upon training in education itself, along with administration, as opposed to giving out mere recipes for running school systems.

A study of turnover among superintendents was made by Cooke and Acuff (340), using directories compiled at the United States Office of Education over a period of eleven years, 1922-31. During this period they found that 14 percent of the county superintendents and 13 percent of the city superintendents in the United States changed positions each year. Eighty percent of county and 70 percent of city superintendents changed one or more times in the eleven years. The trend for city superintendents was shown to be toward a smaller turnover—from 15 percent in 1923 to 8 percent in 1931; for county superintendents the opposite trend was shown. The range from state to state was very wide.

C. C. Moore (366) analyzed the regulations governing the certification of superintendents in the various states. He found special certificates for superintendents issued in only twenty-eight states. Fifteen states require a Master's degree or its equivalent as the basis for the credential. All 28 states requiring a certificate require an education major, and 22 of the 28 require that "a considerable number" of the credits shall be in school administration and supervision. All require experience.

Organization—While various phases of organization are touched upon by many of the studies noted above, a few contribute directly to this field. Otto (372) traced the rise and fall, or the present status, of a considerable number of innovations in organization, some of which had only brief existence. Of fourteen plans of organization (known most often by the name of the city, as the St. Louis, the Pueblo, the Batavia), originating between 1862 and 1930, six—the Pueblo, Cambridge, Elizabeth, Portland, North Denver, and Santa Barbara—have passed out of existence, and the Batavia plan is passing. The St. Louis and, for the time (1934), the Batavia plans still obtain in the cities of their origin but have spread little from there. The remaining six plans—Burk, Winnetka, Dalton, Detroit, X-Y-Z, Platoon and Cooperative Group—are still in operation where they started, and each has been adopted somewhat widely in other places; Burk's plan (1898) being the oldest of those now in use beyond the place of its origin.

The very oldest of the plans, St. Louis (1862), is still in use, and the Batavia plan is not quite extinct. Otherwise the older plans have disappeared.

A useful contribution in the form of a book of administrative problems was contributed by Witham (386). Many of the problems touch organization. Grouping for housing purposes, the question of dual control, districting, proper placement of authority over personnel, division of labor between board and executive, board regulations, junior high-school plan all receive treatment in ways that suggest the trend of thought today. In a survey of the schools of Los Angeles, Hull and Ford (359) proposed a substantial reorganization of the major controls of the schools in line with the principle of unity of control and a better division of labor in administration and supervision.

Ericson (351) examined the Hull-Ford proposals and discussed the principles involved, strongly approving the proposed plan. Schmidt and W. M. Sears (377) explained how sound coordination of the school machinery requires cooperation as well as a code of regulations. Their illustrations were in the realm of accounting, budgeting, care of funds, and business and financial reporting. Gist's general treatise (355) offered a good analysis of the organization problems associated with supervision.

More thought is being given to the relation of school to other governmental machinery, purposes, and processes than formerly was true. School people have leaned backward in favor of separation, but the logical implication of the best educational theory is forcing a change of attitude in some quarters, at least to the extent of demanding facilities for wholesome cooperation. Holy (358) pointed to the importance of this in school plant planning. He examined 100 city plans and found that 21 of them made no reference to schools. He criticized school surveys on the same score.

The subject of organization or school control received important treatment by Edwards (344) in his comprehensive study of school law as the law is reflected in court decisions. To such a study there is no single conclusion, and even the discovery of principles through the analysis of hundreds of cases leaves any but the legally trained with a feeling of helplessness. At least this volume will serve as an answer book for hundreds of legal problems touching the rights and obligations of the school district and school officers.

Newlon's analysis (370) of educational administration as social policy reenforced other efforts to democratize the management of our schools. Mainly concerned with the bearing of the plan of administration upon the social education produced by the school, he examined present practice and presentday attitudes of those in charge of schools and concluded that as we now stand our scheme is essentially *laissez faire*, and that the control of our schools is one of our major social problems. He referred to the present stage as a crisis, admitted that the next move is not clear, but insisted that in administration the teacher must have a new status, the control must be more fully representative of all the people, and the program of instruc-

tion shaped with regard for the ideal social order. Newlon seemed, without saying so directly, to favor indoctrination. Numerous papers in the Twelfth and Thirteenth Yearbooks of the Department of Superintendence (368, 369) contributed to the same general line of thought.

Scates (376) prepared a useful checklist for analyzing and evaluating the services of a school system. The three sections of the checklist provided a means for systematic review of the machinery and services of a school system, and outlined a procedure for evaluating new services which are contemplated.

By means of a questionnaire, and through responses to the Harper Social Beliefs and Attitudes Test, Bair (338) ascertained the social understandings of school superintendents, their reading preferences, their ancestry, their beliefs, and their political and religious leanings. His conclusions were that superintendents are very conservative, and come of large families of old American stock. They are largely rural in their background, have British ancestry, and are about forty-four years old. They are strongly church people, mainly Protestant. They are surrounded by, but do not feel the presence of, pressure groups.

Business management—Engelhardt and Engelhardt (349) developed a score card for evaluating the business department of a school system. The list of items, the analysis, and the values, were derived by the usual method—consensus of opinion of experts. By the application of such a device the whole or any single part of the service may be given a thorough and systematic examination with well-devised perspective, and the results expressed quantitatively. Weller (385) devised a checklist for the same purpose. The 132 questions covered organization, payroll, purchasing, supply management, textbooks, property accounting, maintenance and operation, equipment, finance, insurance, transportation, cafeteria and laundry services. No quantitative scoring system was provided.

Though not designed for city school systems, but especially for union free school districts and central rural school districts of New York, a somewhat similar list of questions covering this field was arranged by W. M. Sears (381). The questions were formulated with reference to these standards: Does it represent good business procedure? Does it comply with the state education law? Does it effect better coordination of the activities of the various school officers? Does it make available essential information for the guidance of the board of education in reaching decisions? A system of weightings and scores was arranged by which the functions of school principal, clerk, treasurer, and collector may be rated. Similarly, the service may be rated under ten separate headings. The same writer (382) discussed the procedure of boards in handling the business service, reemphasizing the weakness of carrying on the work through committees.

Fowlkes (353) prepared an "operating charter" for a superintendent of schools by which to govern his relationships with the business manager. By ten propositions the superintendent was advised as to how he should

deal with the business manager, and by ten others the business manager was advised as to how he should deal with the superintendent. The principle of unit control was recognized, and with it that of healthy co-operation along common sense lines.

The subject of business management will be dealt with fully in the April 1938 number of the *Review of Educational Research*; previous treatments are to be found in the issues for April 1932 and April 1935.

B. COUNTIES

Changes in administrative organization of school units are brought about slowly. Morphet (409) showed that the two greatest factors impeding change are tradition and lack of evidence necessary to show the desirability of change. The groups active in opposing change from a smaller to the larger unit in West Virginia were classified by Cavins (391) as follows: (a) county superintendents not wishing to be legislated out of jobs; (b) city superintendents of independent districts who feared the loss of their positions; (c) boards of education of local districts; (d) sentimental patrons of very small schools; (e) chambers of commerce which feared the lowering of standards for city schools; (f) newspaper reporters anxious to represent what they considered to be public opinion; and (g) intimidated teachers who did not dare to express their real opinions.

Haggard (402) showed that in spite of the recommendations for simplification of the district system in Illinois by every education commission appointed, there were still 10,878 one-room schools in existence in the state. He pointed out that the legal basis of the school district in Illinois at present does not differ materially from that of the school district in 1857. According to Hobson (403) the district system of Illinois will not be changed until the abandonment of the dual system of administrative organization, and the equalization of the tax burden on a statewide basis. High schools of township and community types in prosperous areas would tend to oppose any change. Mahoney (407) reached the same conclusions in his study.

There was evidence of progress, however, towards consolidation and enlargement of units of organization. Blankenship (388) reported the consolidation of ten elementary schools during one year in a county of West Virginia. *Montana Education* (417) reported a bill before the legislature which proposed an enlarging of the unit for financing the schools. On the other hand, Fox (398) showed that the equalization law in Wisconsin has not tended to reduce the number of small schools. The number of one-room schools enrolling five pupils or less increased during 1926 to 1930 from 87 to 96. During the same period, one-room schools enrolling ten or fewer pupils increased from 587 to 652.

Cowan (393) pointed out that the statutes of Connecticut provided an orderly manner for the town to abolish all school districts within its limits and to assume the control and management of the schools. The independent district in Connecticut exists in only six towns. These districts are to con-

continue, as constituted on July 1, 1931, until such time as they may vote to become consolidated. Rininger's study (415) disclosed that 73 percent of the district directors in Pennsylvania favored consolidation where practical; 26 percent opposed consolidation; and 1 percent remained non-committal or uncertain.

Several studies showed the great inequalities existing in the small district system. The *Report of the Advisory Staff made to the Illinois Educational Commission* (404) showed that the average annual per pupil cost in one-room elementary schools varies from \$30 to \$747. Baker (387) pointed out that in Coles County, Illinois, a taxpayer may raise or lower his tax rate by more than 50 percent merely by moving across the road. Patterson (412) found that inequalities were accentuated in Jefferson County, Arkansas, through amounts contributed by the public utilities. The proportion of total valuation which came from public utilities varied from 61 percent in one district to none in certain others. Owensby (411) reported the same situation in Stephens County, Oklahoma. The valuation of public utilities varied from \$3,214 per pupil in average daily attendance in one district to no valuation at all in another. Under the district plan the schools were found to be much more vulnerable to tax reduction because of the strong reliance upon public utilities. L. W. Thompson's study (421) of Wabasha County, Minnesota, showed that valuations range from \$17,205 per pupil in one district to \$797 in another district.

In a study of the costs for instruction and administration in the eight township high schools of Steuben County, Indiana, Eiler (397) found, among other things, that the smaller schools consistently pay less in salaries for teachers and principals, but tend generally to have higher per capita costs. The inequalities in ability of townships to support schools in Indiana were pointed out by Trump (422). His study showed that Jackson Township had \$533.35 in assets for each pupil at the time of his study, while Cleveland Township had only \$74.50. Richards (414) discovered great differences in transportation costs for pupils of townships in Fountain County, Indiana. The annual cost of transportation varied from \$21.90 in one township to \$54.78 in another. Some factors affecting cost were listed as follows: (a) conditions of roads over which buses must travel; (b) density of children along routes; (c) number of pupils transported; and (d) type of vehicle used.

According to Robinson (416), several groups began about 1915 to center attention on the county unit. Cubberley has been one of the proponents of the county as a unit for the administration of public schools. Graves (401) stated that in spite of the fact that five-sixths of the states of the Union had adopted some form of a county unit, only eleven—Alabama, Florida, Georgia, Kentucky, Louisiana, Maryland, New Mexico, North Carolina, Tennessee, Utah, and Virginia—can as yet be said to have established it on a strong basis.

In a study of the codes of six states under the county system, Blodgett (389) concluded that the many powers and duties were not evenly or

consistently distributed among the county officers of one state, or from one state to another. For example, in one state the county superintendent of schools is instructed to spend money for teachers institutes, while in another he is forbidden to use money for this purpose. He found that the important controls of education are divided among the three major offices of the county education organization: (a) county superintendent of schools; (b) county board of education; (c) county board of supervisors. Cyr (394) substantiated Blodgett's findings in his study of the administrative duties in counties of five selected states. He concluded that practices differ greatly from state to state and from county to county within a state.

Rininger (415) found that while a majority of the school-director personnel of Bedford County, Pennsylvania, favored a reorganization of the district system, only 24.5 percent favored the county unit plan. Seven percent were uncertain or non-committal, and 68.5 percent opposed the county unit plan. Butler (390) stated that during the period from 1919 to 1934 ten bills had been introduced in the Michigan Legislature proposing some form of the county unit. None of the bills received a favorable vote by both branches of the legislature. Provisions common to all the bills introduced were listed as follows: number of members on the county board; length of term of superintendent; and specifications that the superintendent would act as executive officer of the board, would assume the duties of the present commissioner of schools, and would attend to the general welfare of the schools in the county district.

Cavins (391) listed the motives for the adoption of the county unit in West Virginia as follows: (a) to make available all the tax resources of the county; (b) to equalize educational opportunity; and (c) to reduce the number of teachers.

In a study of school organization in Pennsylvania, Miller (408) concluded that the schools of the state would be administered more efficiently and at a reduced cost if the county were adopted as the unit of school administration and support.

Several writers advocating reorganization on a county basis set up hypothetical plans which showed the changes that might be effected by going from the district to the county unit. Baker (387) pointed out that a reorganization in Coles County, Illinois, would reduce the number of teachers required by twenty-three. Overn (410) suggested a county reorganization by locating four schools at strategic points. Each school would accommodate 500 pupils, thus caring for all the children of the given county. Patterson's proposal (412) of reorganization for Jefferson County, Arkansas, would enable all districts excepting one to have 51.5 percent more ability to support schools under his county plan than they have under the present district plan. The plan for Kane County, Illinois, as proposed by G. E. Thompson (420) would eliminate 27 one-room schools at a saving of \$22,497. According to his plan the principal savings would be effected through: (a) administration by abolition of township treasurer and savings in the collection and distribution of taxes; (b) reorganization of the districts to eliminate

one-room schools; and (c) changes in the methods of finance. Five enlarged districts for Grundy County, Missouri, instead of the 78 subdistricts existing, were proposed by Gaumnitz (399). Zimmerman's plan (424) of reorganization for La Salle County, Illinois, would eliminate the 282 school districts in favor of seven attendance districts.

Certain improvements have been accomplished through the adoption of some form of the county unit organization. George (400) reported the following improvements: (a) better school transportation, (b) additional libraries established, and (c) better selection of teachers. Cavins (392) reported a lengthened school term and a saving effected through the elimination of teachers by closing and combining small schools.

Dunn (396) attributed the following advantages to the adoption of the county as a unit: (a) enlarged library, (b) better program of extra-curriculum activities for all the pupils, (c) reduction in the per capita cost of the pupils, and (d) strengthened financial credit of the board of education. In addition to some of the advantages claimed by others, Teal (419) considered that the adoption of the county unit organization in West Virginia has resulted in a uniform countywide child accounting system and the adoption of a unified course of study for the entire state. He reported a saving of \$5,000,000 in spite of an increased enrolment and a lengthened term.

Seyfried (418) claimed that the county school superintendent in Maryland, a county unit state, occupies a strategic place in the administration of the schools. In addition to administrative duties, the superintendent is given a great deal of power in rendering decisions arising in connection with the schools. His decisions are final except that an appeal in writing may be made to the state board of education within thirty days.

Pearson (413) compared the county unit system of Box Elder County, Utah, with the district system of Ada County, Idaho. Eleven advantages were claimed for Box Elder County: (a) a larger percent of grade pupils received promotions; (b) a larger percent of pupils enrolled and graduated from high school; (c) higher general standards of preparation required for teachers; (d) better quality of supervision and more frequent supervisory visits; (e) more devices used for teachers in service; (f) a larger percent of the pupils listed in the census enrolled in school; (g) an equal term of school provided for all pupils in the county; (h) fewer one- and two-room schools; (i) greater equality in amount of salary paid to teachers employed; (j) a larger and more equally distributed assessed valuation per pupil; and (k) better provision for extracurriculum activities throughout the county.

In his study of satisfactory school units, Dawson (395) reported some rather outstanding findings. The average administrative unit in the twenty-six states using the district system has only five teaching positions and eighteen square miles of territory. In the ten states organized on the basis of the town or township, the average administrative unit has twenty-seven teaching positions and twenty-eight square miles of territory. In the eleven

states in which the county ordinarily is the administrative school unit, he found an average of ninety-three teaching positions and three hundred and seventy-seven square miles of territory. Dawson pointed out, however, that the exemption of towns, cities, and favored communities has tended to nullify the possible benefits of the county unit.

Some writers discovered that the adoption of a county unit system does not solve all the problems of organization and administration in school systems. Kimbler (406) found in Kentucky that it is difficult to secure approval of bond issues within a county when a part of the constituency receives no immediate benefit through such issues. Jagers (405) discovered in the same state great inequalities among counties in salaries paid to teachers. He found that counties having low incomes paid on an average a salary of \$463 in 1928-29 to rural elementary teachers, while other counties paid an average of \$658 annually to such teachers.

Waltz (423) held that inequalities are not restricted to areas using the district or county systems. She found that inequalities of burden and ability also exist between states and regions. The northeast group of states has 29.7 percent of the nation's children and 42.9 percent of the nation's income. The southeast group has 24.4 percent of the nation's children and 10 percent of the nation's income. The income behind each child varies from state to state, the extremes being \$6,088 per child in New York and \$767 per child in South Carolina.

C. STATES

Most of the published studies in the field of state school administrative organization, for the period under review, are based on data secured from one or more of the following sources: state constitutions, state statutes, state court decisions, literature of the field, state surveys, official reports, and questionnaires. The treatments most commonly employed in these studies are comparative, descriptive, analytical, and statistical. A start has been made in the use of the philosophical and historical technics, while the experimental method has not found its way into use in this area at all.

Nature of Research in this Field

Cyr (432) reported the following research needs in the area of state administrative organization and function: (a) study of the administrative structure; (b) study of the administrative unit; (c) determination of the possibility of state participation in the educational program through correspondence courses, radio, provision of teaching aids and guidance service; and (d) proper allocation of administrative responsibility between federal, state, and local control.

The contribution which research has made to administrative organization during the last one-third of a century was summarized by Norton (441) who cited, as an outstanding example, the progress which has been made in centralizing teacher certification in the hands of the state since Cubberley's pioneer investigation. Norton (441) concluded that "research has estab-

lished beyond reasonable doubt that a satisfactory system of public education can never be developed in this country if the local school district is to be the sole unit for school support." He further pointed out that "school finance illustrates the readiness with which administrative organization and practice respond to research," citing the progress made by New York and Maryland in applying the principles evolved by the educational finance inquiry.

Although real progress has been made, there are many research needs in the areas indicated by Cyr (432). Rogers (444) noted the lack of printed material to serve as a guide to all the states "in choosing from among the many possible activities, those which will be most productive of the desirable results in their particular states." Overn (443) agreed that the functional place of the state department must be carefully studied and determined.

Trends in State School Administration

With regard to the trend in division of administrative control, between the local school district and the state, the preponderance of evidence indicated an increased degree of state control. This judgment was either expressed or implied in the following: Overn (443), Rogers (444), Strayer (447), Whitney (449), and (440). Chambers (426), after making an extensive review of court decisions concluded that "... essentially and intrinsically, the schools . . . are matters of state and not of local jurisdiction." Similarly, Graves (434:420) concluded that "the *Weitervliet* case supplied a precedent everywhere for holding that the final control of education belongs to the state. . . ."

With regard to state control, Strayer (447) pointed out the desirability of its exercise only in connection with the externa of educational administration, such as assuring adequate financial support, rendering aid in securing competent personnel, assisting in providing necessary physical equipment and cooperating in the establishment of essential school organization. Even here, he concluded, the state should control only minimum provisions, thus freeing local initiative to develop in the most appropriate manner. From his study of the states of Maryland, North Carolina, and New York, Strayer (447) concluded that among other important centralizing tendencies operating in those states were state control of courses of study, certification of teachers, supervision of compulsory attendance, and control of the length of the school term. Except in the case of North Carolina, Strayer did not find evidence to indicate that any large amount of control accompanied the granting of state aid.

Organization for State School Administration

The states have almost uniformly chosen, according to the findings of Overn (443), Rogers (444), Strayer (447), Whitney (449), and (440), the state department as the agency through which to exercise control over education. Not only is this the common practice but, as Rogers (444) re-

ported, "more than a hundred educators who have been questioned, unani-
mously agree that the state department of education is the best central
agency for co-ordinating the work of the educational system of the state."
This position is further supported by "writers in educational administra-
tion," according to Rogers.

History of the development of the state agency—At the beginning of the
twentieth century, Thomas (448) reported, the state superintendency had
been created but the state board of education as now constituted was hardly
known. At that time, he recalled, nomination for the position of state
superintendent was often influenced by a desire to secure geographical
balance, on the part of politicians. The staff of state departments, of a
generation ago, typically consisted of a stenographer, secretary, one or two
deputies, and a few clerks. The superintendent was chiefly occupied with
"missionary journeys to institutes and county fairs and gave major at-
tention to his political affiliations." The state board of education of that
period, as Thomas (448) recounted, had no clear conception of its function,
Such responsibilities as were assigned to the state board were ill-defined
and were most likely to be repressive. The typical state board was of an
ex-officio nature, usually consisting of the governor and two other state
officials.

The development of the professional board, Thomas (448) held, came
as a result of a theory as to the weakness of the average state superinten-
dent. This board also was usually ex officio, including in its membership
the heads of the leading state educational institutions. Such an arrange-
ment, he concluded, resulted in the selection of capable members but,
burdened as they were with administrative responsibilities of their own,
their counsel tended to be "confused and ill-proportioned."

Thomas (448) compared the stage of progress, at which we have arrived
in state administrative organization within the past thirty years, with the
ideal state organization proposed by Cubberley in his "Osceola Code," and
arrived at the conclusion that it "has had remarkable phases of fulfillment."
In this connection he quotes Graves's succinct statement:

As a whole, then, states have come to concentrate all the functions of educational
control in a single board. Some states utilize a number of boards for specific pur-
poses connected with education, but some 40 states in various parts of the country,
such as Massachusetts, New York, Alabama, Arkansas and Idaho, assign sufficient
responsibility to one central organization to justify its being considered a general
board. Such boards no longer simply administer state school funds or school lands
and devote a little time to statistics, bookkeeping and conferences for the encourage-
ment of education. They are invested with greatly enlarged powers and have
supervisory control over the entire public schools system of the state. Their duties
are numerous and important. They are responsible for all matters properly relat-
ing to education and have the right to formulate rules and regulations for the
general control of schools throughout the state. Like city boards they determine
policies, direct the work to be undertaken, make appointments to their administra-
tive staff and approve budgets and expenditures.

State department of education—Chambers (425) made a comprehensive
study of the administrative agencies utilized by the various states in control

of all of their educational services and institutions. These he presented, in chart form, for each state.

It was reported that the "most common form of state organization provides a state board of education made up of ex-officio members and a state superintendent elected by popular vote" (440). Evidence, was noted, however, in a few states, of the development of a more significant state department, having a board of education appointed by the governor, selecting its own officers, and providing a competent professional staff.

In his summary of school legislation for the year 1935, Chambers (427) noted the enactment of the Rhode Island Legislature in consolidating the work for the blind in the state department of education and the nominal attachment of the state colleges to this agency.

State board of education—Witham (453) found that 42 out of the 48 states had state boards of education. The ideal organization of state educational boards and the proper method for their selection were considered by Overn (442, 443), Thomas (448), and Workman (455). Their recommendations were in general agreement that the membership of the board should be of from five to nine lay members, that they should receive their appointment from the governor and that they should serve for overlapping terms. Thomas (448) held that the board membership should probably be no more than seven. Overn (443) added the requirement that the board members serve without compensation.

Witham (451, 452, 453) has reported extensively on the present organization of state boards of education in the southern states, north central states, and middle Atlantic states. Of the 15 states considered in his study, Witham reported 4 as having ex-officio boards, 3 as having boards appointed by the governor, 2 as having elected members, and 6 as having no state board of education.

Chambers (427), reporting on school legislation for 1935, noted the legislative enactment in Rhode Island whereby the state board of education was abolished and replaced by a department of education, headed by a director of education, appointed by the governor and removable by him at will. In Utah, as he reported, the state board was reconstituted to consist of nine members distributed according to judicial districts.

Chief executive state school officer—According to Chambers (428) the chief state school officer is appointed by the state board of education in only 8 states, is popularly elected in 32 states, and in the remaining 8 states is appointed by the governor. This fact remains despite the "complete agreement on the part of students of school administration," as Thomas (448) found, that "the commissioners of education chosen by the newer plan (appointment by state board) have been more efficient." The advantages offered through the professional appointment of the chief state school officer are that such executives "have been freed from political forces so as to devote their energies to professional tasks," and that the "compensation and conditions of service have attracted outstanding educators."

Thomas (448) identified as the factors which contribute toward the retention of the elective plan of selecting the chief state school executive: first, "the reluctance of the American voters to give up the privilege of expressing their choice"; second, certain factors "making the need less acute"—(a) non-partisan election resulting in a finer type of superintendent; (b) favorable influence of the advance in school administration generally; and (c) the better understanding of principles of school administration by parents and the general public, which has made it more difficult for an incompetent individual to be elected head of a state's schools.

Staff of department of education—In his study of the state school system of North Carolina, Workman (455) recommended the establishment of the following bureaus and divisions:

1. *Bureau of Administration*
Divisions:
 - a. Business manager
 - b. Attendance and welfare
 - c. School buildings
 - d. Publicity
 - e. Purchase and control
 - f. Libraries
 - g. Statistics
 - h. Transportation
2. *Bureau of Instruction*
Divisions:
 - a. Elementary education and supervision
 - b. Secondary education and supervision
 - c. Research division
 - d. Vocational education
 - e. Certification
 - f. Adult education
 - g. Negro education
 - h. School and community organizations
3. *Bureau of Finance*
Divisions:
 - a. Appropriations
 - b. Audit
 - c. Budgeting
 - d. Bonds
 - e. Loans
 - f. School accounts

Functions of State School Administration

With the development of centralizing tendencies in the control of education it is not surprising that there has been an accompanying increase in the number and significance of the functions assigned to the state's agency for educational control. Studies in this field have indicated the need for assumption, by the state, of a more comprehensive and fundamental responsibility for the entire educational program of the state. The scope of the state control considered by the studies herein reported includes: control of the state's institutions of higher learning, as treated by McNeely (437);

the coordination of the state's higher institutions' programs, as discussed by Klonower (436); McNeely's investigation (438) into the state's supervision of privately controlled institutions of higher learning; Chambers' report (427) on the state's agency for control of the numerous state institutions for the special education of defectives and delinquents; Stine's consideration (446) of the state control of teacher preparation; and the state's responsibility for stimulating the reorganization of local administrative units as indicated by Morphet (439).

Functions of the state department of education—The 1934 Yearbook Commission of the Department of Superintendence of the National Education Association (440) offered as "obligatory functions" of the state department (a) "... to check on localities with state law"; (b) "to provide, through research and general supervisory advice, for the stimulation and growth of local executive officers, and for the guidance of local boards of education"; and (c) "to control such matters as building standards, provisions for financing the program of education, accounting and the like." Overn (442, 443) and Thomas (448), similarly, dealt with the entire range of responsibility of a state department, and were in general agreement with the Commission's statement (440). However, Overn (442) would add to the functions previously listed that of integrating the whole program of education from the first grade through the university. Thomas (448) pointed out that the range of functions listed by Cubberley in his "Osceola Code" can now be approximated in a number of states, notably New York, Pennsylvania, and California.

Specific consideration of particular functions of a state department is given in the studies of Friswold (433), Henry (435), Rogers (444), McNeely (437), Stine (446), and Wood and Hixson (454). Friswold, Wood and Hixson considered the duties of a division of school buildings. Friswold reported that in at least twenty states specific provision is made for offering school building service to architects, engineers, and local school officials through the state department of education. Wood and Hixson (454) listed specifically the duties which such a division should perform. Henry (435) stressed the importance of utilization by the state department of education of the factual information, the gathering of which has long been regarded as its primary function, in informing the public concerning the status and needs of the school system. He pointed to the various appropriate avenues for publicity which a state department may employ. Rogers (444) reported the judgment of specialists as to what the proper function of state elementary-school supervision should be. McNeely (437) presented in diagrammatic form the executive agency employed by each state in the administration of its institutions of higher learning. There are eight states in which the state board is the executive agency for all institutions of higher learning, and fifteen states in which the state board is the executive agency for administration of the teachers colleges. Stine (446), reporting on state control of teacher preparation, found that a

division or bureau of teacher preparation existed in the state departments of sixteen states.

Rogers (444) recognized, in view of the increased responsibility which is being lodged in the state department of education, that "to function as it should, the state department must be composed of men who can command the respect of the professional groups of the state and furnish leadership for them."

Functions of the state board of education—Workman (455) proposed for the state of North Carolina the following powers and duties for the state board of education: (a) assume responsibility for state vocational education; (b) adopt general educational policies; (c) assume general supervision of the public schools; and (d) select a state superintendent. States having a more significant type of state department were classified as (a) those which have a board of education appointed by the governor, (b) those which select their own officers, and (c) those which provide a competent professional staff (440). Whitney's study (449) indicated a statistically reliable difference in economy in per student costs in favor of a unitary board of control for a state's institutions of higher learning. He cited the instance of four states in which the Board of Unitary Control is the state board of education. The duties of the state board of education of Georgia are enumerated by Witham (451) as (a) to prescribe and enforce rules concerning the examination of teachers, (b) to prescribe the course of study in the public schools, (c) to secure the use of a uniform series of textbooks, (d) to enter into agreements with publishers, and (e) to grant state teachers' certificates.

The judicial powers of the state board, as they appear from a review of state statutes and state court decisions, are summarized by Chambers (426) and Coffey (430). These writers found that the decisions of the state board of education are final as to questions of fact and that a petitioner must exhaust his appeals set up within the educational administration before he seeks the courts for remedies at law. Coffey (430) reported that in the absence of specific constitutional or statutory provisions the courts have no authority to review the acts of the state board of education unless it "acts arbitrarily, corruptly or fraudulently."

Functions of the chief executive state school officer—Graves (434:418) recognized the development of a tendency "toward a broader conception of" the office of state superintendent, "and of the extending of the range of its functions. Instead of performing purely statistical and hortatory duties, this office is invested with a large degree of responsibility relating to the state program of education," such as, the certification of teachers, maintenance of an adequate opportunity for all pupils in public schools, and often the exercise of broad judicial powers.

Illustration of the functions assigned to the chief state school executive, in certain states, was supplied by Witham (451, 453). In Georgia he found the state superintendent charged with the duty of secretary of the state board and of executive agent to the state board, coupled with the

authority to apportion the school revenue. In contrast with this simple assignment he cited the state of North Carolina, in which the duties of the state superintendent include directing the schools and enforcing and construing the law, reporting to the governor on the condition of the schools, receiving evidence as to the county school superintendent's performance, informing each school officer of his duties, investigating school systems of other states, acquainting himself with the schools, delivering lectures, signing requisitions for funds for school purposes, as well as serving as secretary of the state board. Chambers (425, 427) and Coffey (430, 431), in their annual summary of legislation and court decisions affecting state school administration, noted certain changes in regard to the authority of the state school superintendent. Coffey (431) noted the general decision of the courts that they do not review educational decisions within the scope of authority granted by law.

Chambers (425) cited the related point that the jurisdiction of the superintendent of public instruction is appellate and not original, and that he may not of his own volition usurp the powers of a local board. Chambers (427) reported the passage of a statute in Oregon repealing the provision for taking appeals of the local district to the state superintendent. Within the same year he recorded the passage of a measure by the Iowa Legislature empowering the chief administrative officer of the state department to withhold state aid to districts, in order to force consolidation.

Functions of the staff of a state department of education—No studies were encountered, within the period covered by this *Review*, which had any considerable bearing upon the functions of all divisions of the staff of a state department of education. Rogers (444) gave thorough treatment to the function of staff members, associated with a division or bureau of elementary education, within a state department. Out of a list of sixty possible functions which he submitted to the judgment of a group of competent judges, the following received the highest ratings: (a) office work on the curriculum; (b) office work on instruction; (c) field work with supervisors; and (d) office work on reports. The function judged to be least important was field work with individual teachers. Rogers initiated a type of study which, as he suggested, needs to be applied to other areas within this field.

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CHAPTER VI

Organization of Administration in Institutions of Higher Education

Super-Institutional Controls

Centralization of control over state institutions—Four studies reported during the past three years have dealt with the problem of centralized authority over state controlled institutions of higher education. McNeely (466) analyzed the findings and recommendations of five recent state surveys of higher education, and showed that the experts in charge of these surveys have generally tended to recommend an enlargement of the degree of central control over all institutions of higher education maintained by the state. Centralization was to be accomplished by reducing the number of institutions and by making one or two institutions the main centers of the state's higher educational system. Whitney (481) reviewed the history of the plan of providing a unitary board for all public institutions of higher education within a state, pointing out that up to 1932 eleven states had established unitary boards. He suggested that the onset of the depression hastened this process in a number of states. The data presented (of somewhat questionable validity) indicate that the unitary board results in lower costs per student.

McNeely (467) described a semi-official method of obtaining coordination in state systems of higher education, which has been adopted in six states, involving the creation of a state council of higher education with functions limited to the making of proposals and recommendations. Ball (456) presented an extensive analysis of the existing situation with respect to centralized control. He reported a distinct trend among the states in the direction of placing centralized control under a single board. There is a greater tendency to place all state normal schools and teachers colleges under the control of a single board than to centralize the control of other state institutions. Ball found a marked tendency to place the control of all public schools within the state under some board that has charge of one or more of the state institutions of higher education. This plan is followed in twenty-three states. The state university is found under a separate board more frequently than any other type of institution. The chief aim of the centralized boards is to bring about better coordination of work among the different institutions and to prevent undesirable duplication of services.

Control of the state over private institutions—McNeely (468) reported an exhaustive investigation into the extent of the supervision exercised by the states over privately controlled institutions of higher education. Among his findings are the following: (a) thirty-one states prescribe limitations and requirements with which privately controlled institutions must comply at the time charters or articles of incorporation are issued; (b) twenty-two states, mainly in the East, maintain a continuing regulatory supervision

over the institutions of higher education after their charters have been granted; (c) thirty-one states place specific restrictions on the right of institutions to confer degrees; (d) all of the states provide for some type of public supervision over the preparation of teachers in privately controlled institutions of higher education.

Voluntary inter-institutional agreements—An analysis of the inter-institutional agreements that have been voluntarily entered into by the colleges and universities of the country is reported by Sanford (476). By the term "agreement" he refers to "contracts, understandings, and connections established between higher institutions for the purpose of improving and enlarging their educational offerings, without involving any surrender of institutional individuality." This type of arrangement is relatively common, particularly in the East. Sanford found a total of 115 such agreements, involving 144 institutions of all types.

External controls over internal management—McNeely (465) studied the extent to which non-institutional state executive agencies are given authority over phases of the internal management of state controlled colleges, universities, and normal schools. He reported thirteen items on which such control is exercised, the number of states exercising control over each item being as follows:

	No. of states
Educational and academic program	1
Staff and faculty personnel matters	13
Travel of staff members	13
Printing and binding	38
Publication of bulletins, pamphlets, and reports	21
Construction and alteration of buildings	20
Insurance on buildings	7
Acquisition, disposal, or inventory of property	40
Budgetary and financial affairs	47
Purchase of supplies, materials, and equipment	30
Prescription of accounting system	42
Investment of permanent funds	17
Investigation of management, administration, and operation	31

The study for the North Central Association (473) revealed that the better colleges and universities of the group are organized so that final authority over matters of internal administration is lodged in the board of trustees, and that decisions on such matters in the better institutions are not subject to review and alteration by any higher authority.

Boards of Trustees

Methods of appointment—Danton (458) analyzed the methods of appointing board members in the institutions listed in Marsh's *American Colleges and Universities*, plus about two hundred non-accredited colleges—a total of 700 institutions. He found that 24 percent of the institutions (only one state institution) are under wholly self-perpetuating boards; an additional 18 percent (only two state institutions) are under boards that are to a greater or less degree self-perpetuating. Of the church-related

institutions 51 percent have boards appointed or elected entirely by the denomination; and an additional 23 percent have boards over which the denomination exercises some degree of control. Of the state institutions, 63 percent are under boards appointed by the governor without other authority. Only 16 percent of the institutions have boards on which the alumni are officially represented.

Six methods of selecting members of governing boards in state controlled institutions were reported by Ball (456): (a) appointment by the governor with the approval of the senate; (b) appointment by the governor with the approval of the council; (c) appointment by the governor without further action; (d) selection by the state legislature; (e) direct election by popular vote; and (f) ex officio. Ball agreed with Danton that the first method listed above is the one found most frequently.

Russell and Reeves (473), in their study for the North Central Association, found that the method by which board members received their offices bears no measurable relation to institutional excellence.

Composition of membership—The vocations of members of boards of trustees in fifteen privately controlled colleges at ten-year intervals from 1860 to 1930 were traced by McGrath (462). He found that the percent of clergymen on the boards of these colleges steadily decreased during the period; the ministry provided 39 percent of the board members in 1860 and only 7 percent in 1930 in these fifteen colleges. Business men and bankers on the board of trustees, on the contrary, greatly increased; the percent for these groups in 1860 was 27, while in 1930 it was 52. Lawyers remained at an approximately constant percent, providing from one-fifth to one-fourth of the board memberships during the period. Educators have provided only a small percent of the membership of college boards, but the proportion is increasing; in 1860 this group provided only 5 percent, while in 1930 they provided 10 percent of the membership of the boards of these fifteen colleges. Practically the entire membership of these college boards during the whole period studied came from the professions and from business and banking; other vocations were represented only to a negligible extent.

Russell and Reeves (473) reported that a balance of board membership among various vocations seems to be associated with institutional strength. The colleges in the group studied that have more than one-third of their board memberships drawn from a single vocation generally rank as weak institutions.

Tenure of board members—According to the findings of Chambers (457) the length of term of trustees of state universities ranges from three to sixteen years, with a median of six years. He found little relationship between the length of term and the actual length of tenure, due to policies with respect to reappointment. "The actual average tenure of trustees is invariably not far from twelve years, regardless of length of term." Russell and Reeves (473) found that length of term of board members is positively associated with institutional excellence. Boards with terms

shorter than three years generally are found only in inferior institutions, while the stronger colleges in many cases have terms for board members of six years or more.

Chambers (457) reported that almost universally the terms of board members in state universities overlap in such a way that complete changes in personnel cannot take place suddenly. Similar findings were reported for the group of institutions studied for the North Central Association (473); the few colleges in which provision is not made for overlapping terms of trustees appear to be weak institutions.

Functions of boards—Ball (456) studied the powers and duties of the forty-one boards that have authority over more than one state institution. He reported a list of more than 150 specific powers and duties that are conferred on one or more of these centralized boards. The list covers, in addition to many general powers and duties, such matters as: control over gifts, endowments, and fellowships; regulation of student fees; authority over courses of study and the inauguration or discontinuance of departments or institutions; and powers concerning real estate.

In the better institutions the boards of trustees confine their actions to the formation of policies, leaving the execution of policies and the detailed administrative direction of the college to the appointed executive staff members (473). This study revealed that the number and kinds of board committees, the frequency of the meetings of the board, and the regularity of attendance at board meetings bear no relation to institutional excellence.

Compensation of board members—The compensation of board members of state institutions varies widely (456). In a few cases no compensation whatever is paid, and in a number of cases only traveling expenses are allowed. The most frequently found condition provides compensation ranging from \$2 to \$10 per diem while actually employed, plus traveling expenses. In a few states the board members are paid an annual salary, ranging from \$800 to \$3,000 a year.

Maney (469) sent a questionnaire to 650 presidents of American and Canadian colleges and universities, asking their personal views on matters related to the compensation of board members. He received a total of 357 replies, the votes on the five questions (disregarding doubtful responses) being as follows:

Question	Total "Yes"	Total "No"
Should any member of the governing board receive any salary for permanent employment in any capacity by the institution?—	57	289
Should any member of the governing board receive any compensation for any professional services rendered the institution?—	132	212
Should any member of the governing board be granted opportunities to do business with the institution when personal profits directly or indirectly result from the transaction?—	71	266
Should any mortgage loan from the institution's endowment ever be granted any member of the governing board?—	21	326
Should any relative by blood or marriage of any member of the governing board be employed by the institution?—	164	160

Analysis of the situation with respect to the employment of board members on the staffs of the fifty-seven institutions studied for the North Central Association (473) showed that the stronger institutions have no members of their boards of trustees on their salaried staffs, while the weaker ones tend occasionally to make such appointments. Exceptions were noted in the cases in which the president of the college is also a member of the board of trustees, and also in the cases in which members of the faculty are permitted to elect a representative to the board. These investigators concluded that no member of the board of trustees should be permitted to hold a salaried position on the staff of the college. Possible exceptions are the president, when he is a board member, and an elected faculty representative.

Administrative Organization

The investigation conducted by Reeves and Russell (473) for the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools has already been referred to in preceding paragraphs, but a somewhat more extended statement regarding the nature of the study seems appropriate at this point because of its extensive reference to problems of administrative organization.

The study was conducted under the auspices of a committee appointed by the North Central Association for the revision of its procedures of accrediting institutions of higher education. The basic problem of the study was to locate institutional characteristics that bear a positive relationship to general excellence. With such characteristics identified, the Association, in its accrediting procedure, may obtain information concerning the status of these characteristics from institutions applying for membership and may then decide on the worthiness of these institutions for accreditation.

Administration was one of the major fields selected for study, and the investigators collected information, from a group of fifty-seven representative institutions, pertaining to a large number of features of administrative organization and procedure. The investigators also set up a number of independent criteria of institutional excellence against which the information on administrative organization could be checked. By classifying institutions in accordance with their practices on a given item of administrative procedure, and then noting the standing of those institutions on the criteria of general excellence, it was possible to determine which features of administration were generally characteristic of good or of poor institutions.

An illustration may make the procedure clearer. One of the items studied was the location of authority for constructing and revising curriculums. The forty-six institutions in which this function was made a responsibility of the faculty had an average percentile status on the criteria of general excellence of from 58 to 60—somewhat above the average. The eleven institutions in which this function was lodged elsewhere than in the faculty had an average percentile status of 18 or lower on the

criteria of general excellence. The conclusion of the investigators was that this item would be useful in the accrediting procedure, inasmuch as one type of administrative organization was definitely associated with inferior status on the criteria of general excellence.

Analyses similar to that illustrated above were made on several hundred items related to administrative organization and procedures, and a judgment was reached with respect to the usefulness of each item in the accrediting of colleges. Space is lacking in this *Review* for any complete list of the various items on which evaluations are presented. The items are classified into eight major groups: (a) general administration and control; (b) academic administration; (c) business administration; (d) financial administration; (e) administration of student personnel services; (f) administration of special educational activities; (g) personnel for administrative service; and (h) records and reports. The report of this investigation furnishes the largest body of evidence of an evaluative type that has yet appeared with reference to the administrative practices of colleges and universities.

Administrative Officers

Evolution of administrative offices—McGrath (463) studied the manner in which administrative offices developed from 1860 to 1933 in thirty-two selected institutions, divided equally among the following classes: (a) state universities situated in the Middle West; (b) large eastern institutions; (c) small eastern institutions; (d) small western institutions. In general, his findings agreed with those of the earlier study by Partridge (472). McGrath found that the median number of administrative offices recognized in the institutions increased from 4 in 1860 to 30 in 1933. He gave the following median dates of establishment for ten administrative offices:

President	-----	before 1860
Librarian	-----	before 1860
Secretary of Faculty	-----	1867
Registrar	-----	1887
Vicepresident	-----	1889
Dean	-----	1891
Dean of Women	-----	1896
Chief Business Officer	-----	1906
Alumni Secretary	-----	1918
Dean of Men	-----	1920

McGrath also found that practically all of these offices, with the exception of that for business affairs, had developed originally out of the teaching positions of the faculty. M. S. Ward (480) found in an investigation of 319 liberal arts colleges that the median date of establishment of the dean-ship was 1913, a date considerably different from that found by McGrath. Ward, however, included many institutions founded since 1890. His study was limited to liberal arts colleges, while McGrath included universities.

McGrath's list of institutions was small, but his technic was more precise, for Ward relied on a questionnaire inquiry instead of consulting primary sources to obtain his median dates of establishment.

Tenure of officers—McGrath (463) also studied the length of tenure of the various administrative officers during the period since 1860 in the thirty-two institutions included in his investigation. The median tenure for those who held each of the offices is as follows:

	<i>Years</i>
President -----	9
Librarian -----	6
Vicepresident -----	5
Dean -----	5
Registrar -----	5
Dean of Men -----	4
Alumni Secretary -----	4
Dean of Women -----	3
Secretary of Faculty -----	3

Milner (470) reported a study of the deans of 100 small colleges (200 to 600 students), in which he found that the mean term of service of the deans in office at the time of the investigation (date not given, but presumably about 1935) to be seven years. Several factors may account for the differences between this figure and the one reported by McGrath. The types of institutions are different in the two studies. McGrath used the median, while Milner used the mean. McGrath included the entire period from 1860 to 1933, while Milner's data relate only to the current situation. McGrath used data only for officers whose tenure was completed, while Milner gave figures for those still in office. This fact would tend to increase considerably the discrepancy in the two figures.

M. S. Ward (480) reported a median tenure of deans now in office of eight and one-half years, a figure that departs even further from McGrath's than Milner's does. Evidently there is need for further investigation to establish clearly the facts concerning the tenure of administrative officers in higher institutions.

The turnover in college presidencies in 1935 was found by Greenleaf (461) to be 8 percent. If this is a normal situation, there would be indicated an average tenure of twelve years for presidents.

Qualifications of officers—McGrath (463) studied the qualifications of the administrative officers in the thirty-two institutions included in his investigation, with particular reference to degrees held. The academic deans were found to be the only officers which in the majority of cases held the Doctor's degree. The Master's degree is the highest degree held by more than half the presidents, vicepresidents, and librarians. Approximately one-third of the deans of women, deans of men, and registrars hold the Bachelor's degree as their highest academic attainment, and this level is characteristic of two-thirds of the alumni secretaries. Milner (470) found only 35.7 percent of the academic deans now hold Doctor's degrees, but his study was limited to conditions in the smaller colleges. M. S. Ward

(480), in the same type of institutions, found 48.8 percent of the deans holding Doctor's degrees.

Russell and Reeves (473) studied the relationship between competence of administrative personnel and general institutional excellence in their investigation of accrediting procedures for the North Central Association. Competence was measured only in terms of a subjective rating by the visiting inspectors. The findings show a remarkably close association between judgments of the competence of administrative officers and the qualitative ratings of institutions for general excellence. McKee (464) used the same institutions and data as were included in the North Central investigation in an effort to determine if there are any objective characteristics that are positively associated with competence of administrative personnel. His conclusions are that the only objective fact concerning administrative personnel that has an important relation to competence is the amount of salary received. The highest degree held is of moderate importance in estimating the competence of personnel for academic administration, but of no value as an index of competence of the personnel for any other administrative office. Other factors, such as age, or amount and kind of experience, show no relationship whatever with competence of administrative personnel.

The deanship—Two studies have appeared bearing particularly on the deanship. Milner's study (470) is one of the series included in the Smaller College Study of the Association of American Colleges; it pertains chiefly to the status and functions of the dean in the small church-related college. The data are based chiefly on questionnaire returns from 100 colleges with enrolments between 200 and 600 students. The second study, by M. S. Ward (480), was designed chiefly to reflect the thinking of college deans on controversial issues in higher education. As background information, Ward presents data concerning the present status of this administrative officer in 330 liberal arts colleges, the number of respondents to the questionnaire being about half of those addressed.

Milner (470) found that in a majority of cases the deanship is combined with some other office, such as the registrar or the student personnel service. Most of the deans have had no specific professional training for their duties, the majority having been recruited from the professorial ranks of the faculty. Their teaching duties are still relatively heavy. The median age of deans Milner found to be 49, with a range from 31 to 71. M. S. Ward (480) agreed closely, finding a median age of 50. Milner reported the median salary of the dean to be \$3,285 in 1930-31; somewhat less than half of the deans supplement their salaries by other employment.

The official duties of the dean, Milner found, are not clearly defined, and there is no uniformity of practice in the assignment of functions, although the major areas of responsibility are as follows: (a) assistance to the president in academic administration; (b) directing and advising of students; (c) leadership of the faculty in the educational program. M. S. Ward (480) described an emerging conception of the deanship which "contemplates the office so organized as to include the major responsibilities that seem natural to an efficient, democratic administration."

Faculty Participation in Administration

Committee T of the American Association of University Professors has issued two reports, one in 1936 (474) and the other in 1937 (475), on the place of the faculty in university government. The 1936 report gave the results from a questionnaire on which replies were received from 56 institutional chapters of the Association. Faculty membership on the board of trustees was reported in only one institution, although one other reported that such a plan had been tried and abandoned. Joint conference committees of trustees and faculty members were reported in nine institutions. In a few instances faculty committees were reported as having been asked to make nominations for a presidency, but in no case had the faculty been given any legal power in the naming of a president. The reports showed no appreciable change during recent years in the legislative powers of faculties or in their control over committee appointments.

The conclusion was reached that the government of departments is still in a chaotic state. A year later, in 1937, the same committee reported that attempts to settle the power of departments and department heads by statute are relatively rare. Only 20 of the 118 institutions from which reports were received had any written regulations on the subject. In the great majority of cases the administrative organization of departments is undefined and follows lines prescribed by custom or determined by the delegation of power from deans and presidents. In nearly all cases the tenure of the head of the department is indefinite or at the pleasure of the president. "The control of the department head over his budget seems to be stronger than his control over educational affairs"; in dealing with the latter type of problem the department head tends to consult the staff members of the department oftener than when dealing with the budget.

Institutional Research, Survey, and Advisory Services

Scroggs (477) made an extensive analysis of the place occupied by systematic fact-finding and research on institutional problems in the administration of higher education. His findings include an exhaustive analysis of the kinds of information needed in the administration of a college or university. He reached the conclusion that the range and variety of this information is not efficiently manageable within the scope of a single office. He reported a definite trend toward the objective study of institutional problems in colleges and universities. He developed a system of fact-finding for use in institutional self-analysis, and outlined the organization necessary for such an agency in an institution of higher education.

An actual program in which members of the faculty have participated in service studies or research looking toward the improvement of institutional practices and procedures is reported from Muskingum College (471). Most of the problems that are reported from this institution as having been treated by research methods lie outside the field of administration proper, but certain of the reports, such as the job analysis of the work of the dean

of women, and the development of a technic for introducing changes in social regulations, are of interest as examples of institutional research on administrative problems.

J. L. Ward (479) developed a form for the recording of personnel information about faculty members, after extensive analyses of forms now in use in other institutions and with the assistance of a number of expert judges. Although this faculty record form was intended specifically for use at the University of Toledo, its features would doubtless be applicable in most American colleges and universities.

A study to determine the methods used for obtaining legal counsel in colleges and universities was made by Van Dyke (478). He found that in the endowed institutions, 44 percent obtain legal counsel from a firm or person not in any way connected with the governing board; 17 percent of the endowed institutions use the services of members of the board who are of the legal profession; 15 percent use a legal firm represented by membership on the board; the remaining institutions depend on various combinations of these sources for their legal counsel. In the publicly controlled institutions 28 percent obtain their legal counsel from a governmental official; 13 percent use outside individuals or firms having no connection with the institution; 9 percent make use of faculty members of the law school; 4 percent have the full-time service of a member of the administrative staff for legal counsel; the others depend on legal counsel obtained from more than one of these sources.

Elliott and Chambers (460) produced a useful compilation of court decisions affecting higher education. The extensive findings of this analysis will not be presented here, because the topic is covered in another issue of the *Review of Educational Research*. Administrators will find the Elliott and Chambers study a valuable handbook of information.

An exhaustive study of surveys of institutions of higher education is reported by Eells (459). His analysis, which was based upon a list as nearly complete as it has been humanly possible to make it, included 230 printed survey reports, 70 survey reports in mimeographed form, and 278 survey reports in typewritten form. The survey movement has reached 1,887 different institutions of higher education. The study attempted to evaluate the various surveys, classifying them into five groups with respect to their usefulness as reported by institutional administrative officers. The treatment included many interesting features, such as a topical index to the contents of the surveys, a list of the surveyors and the number of surveys in which each had participated, an analysis of the results of the surveys, information concerning costs and sources of funds for conducting the surveys, and opinions concerning future trends in higher educational surveying.

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